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ABSTRACT

This compilation of brief articles on aspects of training in English as a second language (ESL) at the City University of New York (CUNY) serves also as an introduction to the many facets of ESL instruction. Characteristics of ESL students are described and differentiated. Several typical programs are described. The needs of ESL students outside the classroom are dealt with. An overview of the history of ESL instruction precedes discussions of specific aspects of methodology, which focus on theory into practice and teacher education. An annotated bibliography of 11 basic works is included. Finally, abstracts of presentations at the 1981 CUNY ESL Council Conference deal with strategies for tailoring courses to help ESL students make the transition into the mainstream of college. (JB)

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TEACHING ESL AT CUNY

A Special Issue of RESOURCE

Newsletter of the Instructional Resource Center
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INTRODUCTION

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In 1963, when I mentioned plans for a master's degree in the teaching of Englis as a Second Language (ESL), a friend asked, "Whom would you teach it to?"

In May 1981, the New York Times reported that according to the Department of Education, "about 28 million people in the United States, one person in eight,...have mother tongues other than English or live in households in which languages other than English are spoken."[1] In New York City alone, "estimates for the total number of foreign-born people who have come to the city in recent years range as high as two million."[2]

If my friend has been using his eyes and ears, he now knows beyond a doubt that there is no dearth of people in the United States to whom to teach English as a Second Language. As a matter of fact, students needing formal instruction in ESL have enrolled in higher education institutions across the country, and English-language learners are now causing noticeable strain on communities' educational facilities. Some observers warn, therefore, of increasing backlash against immigration. Others, however, believe that the positive contributions of today's immigrants outweigh the problems they cause. While the debate has continued, the faculty and administration of the City University of New York (CUNY) have summoned their resources in a variety of ways to meet the needs of ESL students.

But ESL has long been mysterious to those not involved with students; one uninitiate admitted recently to thinking that ESL was a program for the handicapped. People who remember their own foreign language-learning experiences do not see how teachers can work effectively with students whose language they do not know, or, worse, with a class where the students speak several different languages.

The purpose, then, of this issue of Resource is two-fold: first, to dispel some of the mystery surrounding ESL; and second, to offer information which we hope will be helpful to all teachers and administrators grappling with providing ESL instruction, as well as other kinds of academic instruction, for new arrivals in their cities.

First, Linda Ann Kunz describes CUNY's ESL students. She differentiates three categories of foreign students in the University, the languages they speak, the extent of their previous education, and their aspirations. Gary Gabriel explores what makes immigrants angry at Americans. In Judy Pierpont's article, students themselves tell what they require in order to succeed in college and what they think hinders their becoming proficient in English.

In an overview of what CUNY offers ESL students, Barry Kwalick reports on some typical programs. A reprint of Wolhee Choe's article from the March 1978 issue of Resource assesses methods for placing ESL students in appropriate courses; Nancy Duke S. Lay brings the testing situation up to date by examining how the CUNY Writing Assessment Test has affected ESL programs.

ESL students' needs outside the confines of the ESL class also claim attention: Len Fox suggests how freshman composition instructors can work with students not yet in command of the nuances of idiomatic American English. Alex Cruz explains a counseling approach which is acutely sensitized to the societal and environmental stresses confronting Spanish-speaking students.

A recapitulation by Mary Hines of the ways ESL methodology has evolved over the last twenty years leads to the application of theory glimpsed through the classrooms of five teachers at one college. Carolyn Gilboa informs us that the days when anyone who could speak English could teach ESL are over and sketches the background an ESL teacher requires in order to facilitate and accelerate language acquisition.

Ann Raimes invites writing teachers curious to learn more about ESL to dip into eleven books which she has selected for an annotated bibliography.

Finally, abstracts of presentations at the 1981 CUNY ESL Council Conference deal with strategies for tailoring courses to help ESL students make the transition into the mainstream of college.

Thanks are due the group who first convened to discuss with me the aspects of ESL which would be most helpful to include in this issue: Len Fox, Nancy Duke S. Lay, Judy Pierpont, and Carolyn Raphael. Nothing would have progressed past the talking stage without Barry Kwalick, Marilyn Maiz, and Virginia Slaughter, of the Instructional Resource Center, who coordinated the entire production with deftness, forbearance, and wit.

Notes

1. Gladwin Hill, "Everyday Use of Foreign Languages is Rising in U.S.," The New York Times, 5/5/81, p. C20.

2. Michael Goodwin, "Immigrants Revitalize City, but Strain Its Resources," The New York Times, 5/6/81, pp. A1 and B4.

In 1975, the Instructional Resource Center undertook its first project, a survey of CUNY's basic skills programs. The surveys became the foundation of a state-of-the-art volume, written by CUNY faculty who had been part of the survey team, and subsequently published by Jossey-Bass as Teaching Basic Skills in College (1980). The article which follows, a reprint of part of Linda Kunz's chapter on English as a Second Language, offers a comprehensive description of CUNY's ESL students.

WHO ARE THE STUDENTS?*

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Paul Goodman once said in a talk at Teachers College, Columbia University, "If we taught people to speak their native language the way we teach them to read, half of them would stutter, and many wouldn't speak at all." This may be a harsh judgment, but it makes a point: we don't formally teach people to speak their native language, yet they do speak and comprehend it perfectly well for the social milieu in which it was learned. This is a most important commonality among ESL students--whoever they are, they have already mastered in their first language at least two of the communications skills they need in English. They do not need to learn to speak and comprehend; they need to learn to speak and comprehend English. If they can read and write in their first language, those skills do not evaporate; they have to be applied to English reading and writing. This competence is all too easy to overlook if a person cannot express himself to a placement tester, adviser, or teacher, and ESL students are often the most talked-down-to students in a college population. ESL teachers and other professionals correctly note that ESL is not a remedial field and that ESL students, with no more exceptions than in any random college sampling, are not "learning disabled" or in any other way less able to meet the demands of college work than their native English-speaking counterparts. ESL students do need more time to meet language skills requirements and usually more attention; their numbers do include skills-deficient students. But their abilities, aspirations, and past successes are as wide-ranging as those of the larger population, and they should be met just as individually.

There are three groups within a college ESL population: visiting foreign students, foreign-born American residents, and American-educated bilingual students. Each group has a counterpart among native English-speaking students, and it might be useful to teachers or administrators with limited exposure to ESL students to see them in relation to students they already know.

Until 1970 and the advent of an open admissions policy, CUNY had two main types of students studying English as a second language: foreign students and the foreign born. Although these terms have a touch of the ridiculous about them since one would have to be foreign born to be a foreign student, they do refer to two rather different groups still present not only in New York but all over the United States.

The most precise use of the term foreign students refers to those persons studying in the United States on a student visa, but it has been used more generally to mean people who have come here to study (usually in a specialized field) with the

* Reprinted with permission of the author, from Alice Stewart Trillin and Associates, Teaching Basic Skills in College (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1980), pp. 147-152

intention of returning to their own countries on completion of a degree program. Foreign students are usually, though not exclusively, of college age and have come to the United States on the basis of academic excellence in their home countries and/or substantial economic means. ESL teachers tend to anticipate that these students will be cultured, well-educated, highly motivated, and diligent. Although cultural differences, homesickness, and critical views of America and Americans may make for difficulty in adaptation, a fairly high level of self-esteem and a clear sense of identity among most foreign students favor their academic success. Their only native English-speaking counterparts in the United States are British, Irish, Canadian, Australian, and New Zealand foreign students. This whole group is often felt to be one of the most desirable from a faculty viewpoint.

What distinguishes the foreign born is their intention to make their permanent home in the United States. Typically they are persons of all ages who wish to learn English not only to study but to work and live in this country. Most have jobs and have therefore appeared in the largest numbers in evening classes sponsored by departments of adult or continuing education or a school of general studies program. Although most learn English through free programs offered by the public school system, religious organizations, and various service agencies, sizable numbers have chosen to enroll in college, many beginning as nonmatriculating students hoping to earn a degree at a later time. Their native English-speaking counterparts are any adult learners who see work and study as a feasible, perhaps necessary, combination in their lives. Financial means, educational background, and language skills proficiency vary enormously among the foreign born, but on the whole, maturity and seriousness of purpose bring them well-recommended to the ESL classroom.

The open admissions policy brought a third kind of ESL student to the University, and sheer numbers forced major changes, including the mingling of students with quite different backgrounds, attitudes, and purposes in newly expanded ESL programs. This third group, once included among open admissions students because they did not meet earlier CUNY admissions standards, are recent high school graduates who have had all or most of their education in this country often having learned English and their first language simultaneously. Like their native English-speaking counterparts in reading and basic writing classes, many have met more failure than success in school thus far. In some cases inadequate English is the only reason for such failure; often, however, there is the same combination of skills deficiencies, prejudices and preconceptions, and other personal and sociological factors which make college life difficult for nearly all such students, no matter what first language they speak. Whatever the reason, it takes courage for them to enter college. Family and financial problems may be severe, self-esteem low, and notions of college work vague. There may be a cultural tradition pulling a student in what seems to be the opposite direction from his or her college aspirations. These are students who have taken on great odds to get a college education, and that should be respected.

Of the more than 5000 students in ESL classes at CUNY approximately 60 percent are speakers of Spanish. The community colleges tend to have the higher proportions, senior colleges the lower, but none has fewer than 35 percent Spanish-speakers in its ESL program. The next largest language groups are French-speaking, ranging from 10 to 35 percent, and Chinese-speaking, ranging from 3 to 20 percent. As many as a hundred other languages are represented in the student body, but only Italian, Greek, Korean, Russian, and Rumanian are spoken by sufficient numbers of students to form small language communities. And this matter of language communities is important: a student who has friends and classmates who speak his first language has the benefit of social support but the academic disadvantage of speaking English only with his teachers and a few slight acquaintances.

The length of time that an ESL student has been in this country is an important variable, but one that is hard to use predictively. It is certainly not an accurate generalization to say, "the longer, the better." Yes, bilingual people who were born here or came at an early age are likely to speak and comprehend English with ease, but they may have had little or no chance to learn to read and write without dealing with a language problem at the same time. Recent immigrants, in contrast, may have tremendous difficulties with everyday English, but the majority are literate, often quite skilled, in their first language.

It is hard to say how much the variables just discussed have to do with ESL students' success or failure in university work. No matter what his background and previous education, the individual ESL student has to respect the English language and English-speaking people and their culture enough to invest himself wholeheartedly in what he is learning. An ESL teacher should want to look as carefully and honestly as individual students will allow at attitudes and experiences which may have some bearing on their learning of English. Class discussions, conferences, and writing assignments are appropriate means of learning more about students as long as students can avoid revealing more than they want to. Teachers should ask questions like these about each student: (1) What brought this student to the United States; was it a matter of choice or of political, economic, or familial pressure? (2) Have her experiences in learning English been largely positive or negative? (3) Does she feel at home in this country? (4) Does she plan to stay here? (5) Does she have American friends? (6) How does she feel English and American culture compare with her first language and culture? (7) Does she like speaking English? (8) Does she see her treatment in this class, this college, this city, as fair?

Concern and understanding might increase if teachers ask themselves similar questions about their own feelings, for example: What brought me to this classroom, and was it a matter of choice or of academic or economic pressure? Have my experiences in teaching English been largely positive or negative? Do I feel at home in this field, with these students? ESL teachers need this understanding because, although they are not counselors or advisers, they are often the only college personnel that ESL students talk to. ESL students often do not know about, or are reluctant to seek out, the help of college counseling and advisement services. Furthermore, since ESL classes are smaller and meet more regularly and for more hours than most other courses, they encourage interpersonal involvement. If an ESL teacher does not show that he is willing to step beyond the customary college boundaries of impersonality if the student wishes to, the student is not likely to take such an initiative elsewhere.

Research on motiviation among ESL students has shown quite conclusively how great the effect of attitude is on language learning, but it has not yet shown whether inquiry, understanding, and kind criticism can change negative attitudes and feelings of alienation or superiority so often hidden under extremely civil and cooperative exteriors. Whether it is the student alone or teacher and student both who are hiding such feelings, whether the data are complete or not, one should look beyond academic matters to find out why there is such a high rate of failure among ESL students. Generally speaking, CUNY ESL teachers rarely expect more than 60 percent of their students to pass a course on the first try, and there are students who have been in an ESL sequence for as long as five years. The fact that any one of these students may have the same language background, academic preparation, number of years in this country, and even English fluency as another student who took those courses four or five years ago and is now in graduate school should encourage teachers, as much as possible, to know their ESL students personally and individually.

TEACHING THE ANGRY IMMIGRANT

Gary Gabriel

Most teachers are aware that different students need to be taught differently. Few teachers, if any, would attempt to teach children and adults, for instance, in the same way. And teachers in multi-cultural education know by instinct or from experience that people from different societies often have different classroom expectations and needs; their learning styles differ, and they respond to certain kinds of lessons in different ways.

Latin students, for example, oftentimes tend to require more space, more activity, more freedom to move and speak and laugh than students of some other nationalities. Oriental students frequently surround and punctuate their utterances with silence; they seem to require more wait time, more time to consider and weigh, before speaking. Europeans usually respond best to a cognitive discipline, an analytical approach that places heavy emphasis on correctness and the more formal levels of usage.

Obviously, these are the broadest of generalizations. What is a "Latin," after all? A Cuban? A Mexican? A Spaniard? By "Oriental" do we mean Chinese or Thai? Or Polynesian? The "European"--Scandinavian or Mediterranean? And even when we know which--are all Mediterraneans alike?

No, but one must begin somewhere. There are certain cultural traits that are pervasive enough within a given nationality to warrant observation and generalization about that nationality, and the likely classroom behavior of such a nationality in a particular learning setting. This is why many teachers of English in bilingual education or English as a second language programs try to maintain an awareness of some of the cultural as well as individual traits of the students in their classes.

But there is a step further to be taken, if the teacher is to work successfully with a multi-ethnic class. There is also disposition, the affect state that the learner happens to be in at the moment of teaching; this can be a fleeting, fluid thing--subject to all manner of variation and sometimes very difficult to perceive. Oftentimes, too, the disposition is not fleeting at all, but rather a continuing state of--what? Anxiety? Depression? Hostility? These, possibly, and more.

Consider: why do Americans leave the United States? Some take overseas jobs with important companies; such positions are often very lucrative and the experience is usually beneficial to the individual's career. Some retired, pensioneer Americans find they can live far better in an overseas locale where the dollar is still strong. Some love travel, the flavor of new people and new places. Some have found the greatest personal fulfillment in a distant foreign setting. And some are searching for new values and new experiences not to be found at home.

What these Americans have in common is one very special privilege: they can always come back to the United States. Their departure was by choice, their overseas residence altogether voluntary. However much they may resist the possibility, they may decide to come back at any time.

Yet even these relatively free agents encounter trauma and disenchantment, the old and familiar "culture shock" in the new settings. Usually comfortable financially, often objects of curiousity and occasionally even respect simply by virtue of being Americans, and almost always in touch, if so desired, with the English language (for our language, after all, has become the international code system of convenience),

these temporary or permanent expatriates nevertheless sometimes weary of the strange, even exasperating local ways; the unfamiliar food and drink; the regional bugs and afflictions they may not have native immunity to; the new climate, which can range from the idyllic eternal spring to alternating raw, rainy seasons and hot, dry ones.

Yes, all this can get that privileged free agent--the American abroad--very down. Now consider the plight of some foreign immigrants to the United States.

They, too, may take to our local customs and conventions with something less than enthusiasm. They, too, may find the food, the climate, and the local ills a bit much to take. They, too, may be in a state of shock due to the considerable accommodation they must make...and they may not be sophisticated travelers to begin with. But beyond all this, they probably do not share the privileges of the American abroad. Perhaps they cannot go home; possibly they never wanted to leave in the first place, but are political refugees for whom the choice was: escape or perish. Perhaps they have an intense love of their native land, but financial conditions made it all but impossible for them to live there. Or maybe they did come to the United States by choice, but expected a land of opportunity for all; having cut many ties behind them, they must now remain and make the best of the new life, however unrealistic past dreams may have turned out to be.

Can they find their own language anywhere? Sure, if they speak the right language. But without English, they will not go far. And the charming directness of Americans--so refreshing at the beginning--is starting to pall; what passed for ingenuousness is now beginning to seem, by other standards, rude, even crude. And how powerless they feel! Money talks, they are starting to discover; even in an affluent society, there are the poor--and hunger feels pretty much the same everywhere. Work hours are long, living quarters substandard, there is little or no respect for their values, their culture, their way of thinking--and do they dare complain, or criticize? Not openly, for the response is likely to be, "If you don't like it here, why don't you go back where you came from?"

Why, indeed? Would that one could, but no, not now, not yet. And so they work, and try to make their homes habitable, and attempt to grasp local custom and attitude, and straddle social boundaries--one foot in the language ghetto, the other uncertainly in mainstream society. And they walk into English classes--knowing that some kind of functional mastery of at least the essentials of the language is a must, for survival's sake.

But it's hard for them sometimes, not to hate the powers of destiny that forced them to leave their homeland; it's hard not to hate every irritating detail of the sometimes frustrating new life; it's hard not to hate the smug, complacent native Americans who seem not to know or to care about the sacrifices that getting to the Promised Land demanded, and who seem to expect the newcomer to feel eternal gratitude just to be here. And perhaps it's even hard not to hate the English language, because it, and it alone, sometimes seems to be all that stands in the way of maintaining some kind of equilibrium, some kind of continuity of life.

An exaggerated profile of a very restricted group? Maybe, maybe not. Surely there are happy, successful immigrants who have taken easily and enthusiastically to urban or rural America, who see their futures here, and who have had positive, heart-warming experiences with America and Americans. Some people view the United States one way, some another; some adapt quickly, some more slowly. Some have been eager to cast off the old ways, some are repelled by what seems to be a less-than-civilized society.

But the fact is: in a multi-cultural classroom filled with, say, thirty or forty smiling faces of different nationalities, there are going to be some angry students, some disturbed students, some altogether disoriented students. There is going to be inner melancholy, inner conflict, inner resentment, inner confusion. And yet they smile. They smile out of culturally-conditioned respect for the teacher and the classroom; they smile out of genuine gratitude to the American teacher who may be their only real American friend; they smile out of happiness to be in the protected, empathetic atmosphere of the English language classroom.

And they smile out of nervousness, alienation, and tension, too--for smiles mean different things in different places in the world. So that teachers must not be lulled into the belief that their students are calm and contented simply because they are trying to be cheerful; there may be some seething emotions underneath the pleasant facade, emotions that the students may have been taught not to reveal--at least, not in the classroom. But the emotions may be there, nonetheless, unexpressed and perhaps even unacknowledged; and if they are indeed present, they may be militating against efficient, effective learning, for the relaxed, satisfied learner learns best--just as the relaxed, satisfied teacher teaches best.

Suggested Reading

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ENGLISH PROFICIENCY: A STUDENT ASSESSMENT OF ACADEMIC NEEDS

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Seven ESL students in CUNY colleges and fifteen ESL teachers met recently under the auspices of the Special Interest Group in Higher Education of NYS ESOL BEA* to share perceptions of each other and the various ESL programs in which we participate. The students taught us a great deal about how they achieve college-level fluency in English, and what interferes with their full functioning in the language. If we consider students' insights, we may be better able to teach ESL students and structure programs which meet their needs.

Most of the students were in various levels of ESL programs but a few were already in writing courses at the freshman composition level. All were taking subject matter courses in English. These students expressed deep concern with aspects of interference from their native languages: Spanish, Haitian Creole, Burmese, Korean, and Greek.

In the broadest sense, they felt the need to think in English. Zenaida, a speaker of Spanish from Puerto Rico, explained: "For a person to write a good essay, he has to know how to communicate the ideas in his head. He has to think in the second language. Otherwise, he thinks in his own language and then translates into English." Carlos, also a Spanish speaker, put it like this: "My own language hasn't helped me learn English. I don't think it helps you to learn a language if you think in your language."

Zenaida and Carlos are aware that they think in language, that they form their ideas in language. For most of their lives thinking as well as communicating has been carried on in their native language. Phrases, syntactical relationships, and tense regularities are an integral part of their thinking in that language.

Advanced ESL students seem to be aware of, or can learn to be aware of, which language they are thinking in, as Zenaida and Carlos indicate in their statements. They know there are times and circumstances when they think in English, and situations where they are thrust back into translation, where syntax, phrases, and words from the native language invade the thought processes. When a student cannot find the words, phrases, or grammatical structures he needs in English as his mind scans over and rejects all possibilities as inadequate or wrong, he relies on his native language to deal with the thought.

This generally happens when the student does not have the language to deal with the complexity of a topic in English. When he is presented with subject matter which he has seldom or never thought about in English, he may need to use new vocabulary and the syntactical relationships involved in using that vocabulary, or new kinds of logical relationships between sentences and sentence parts. The topic itself presents him with new language problems. Finding that he cannot think or find his ideas quickly or adequately in English, he relies on his native language to provide him with the content, but now has to translate into English, introducing into his speech or writing a number of errors derived from the linguistic patterns of his native language.

*New York State English to Speakers of Other Languages and Bilingual Educators Association

Other circumstances also affect an ESL student's ability to control his thinking process. He may lose control of the new language when he is under pressure, especially time pressure. If a student in most situations can think in English, it is often at a slower rate than that of a native speaker. He is searching for words and expressions that do not spring as quickly to mind as they do for a native speaker. He is monitoring the correctness of syntax and inflections; questioning himself on his accuracy doubting the suitability of word choices, articles, or prepositions; rejecting choices he is not sure of or risking new expressions; trying to remember rules and when they apply. In addition, with severe time limitations, ESL students are often not able to edit their work, a skill which we spend semesters teaching. A student who can write an essay in an hour may need another hour to deliberately edit it.

However, Taik, from Korea, said that even two hours are not enough. She knows that Korean interferes with her writing and that she has a special problem with word order. Yet, she feels she knows English grammar and syntax well enough to revise her papers. But she needs to revise and rewrite several times before she can be sure she has not left errors. She may be able to write very nicely, but at this stage in her acquisition of English, a fifty-minute essay might not reveal this.

The students at the NYS ESOL BEA meeting were very much aware that they must be able to meet the standards of the University, most particularly the CUNY Writing Assessment Test.* They had several suggestions as to what is needed to prepare them adequately for the test. The strongest appeal was for more practice in discussion, in expressing their ideas orally. Zenaida knows that without being able to "communicate the ideas in her head," she cannot write fluent, native-sounding English. She explained that expressing her ideas orally strengthens her ability to think in English. These students said that they needed to discuss essay topics before writing in order to discover and experiment with new vocabulary, syntactical patterns, and logical relationships, as well as the subject matter itself. They then would feel ready to confront all these elements in writing.

All the students included statements about the difficulty of expressing themselves and the need for more practice. Philippe, a student from Haiti, attested to the problem when he said, "I don't need more grammar. I have a problem expressing myself." Taik said something similar. "I need practice using what I have learned." Carlos added, "I lack the opportunity to speak. I need more oral communication to develop my speaking ability which is not as good as it could be."

If, as Zenaida claimed, the purpose of an ESL program in college is to prepare students to "manage all their courses with relative ease," students must acquire a full range of skills in English. Understanding lectures and taking notes in English require special attention. The language of each new subject area presents difficulty and the skill of listening and writing at the same time in a still relatively unfamiliar language is highly complex. Students often devise inefficient and counter-productive methods of using their native languages. Finding that they cannot process the information and get it down fast enough, many fall back on translation, understanding the gist of the content in English, and writing their notes in language that comes easily and naturally. They spend hours at a time becoming proficient in translation, reinforcing the habit of reliance on the native language.

Students rely on translating what they read, as well. Not uncommonly, it takes ESL students twice as long to read college text material as it does native speakers. They face many of the same difficulties as native speakers in understanding the vocabulary particular to a field, in following syntactical and logical relationships, and in dealing with abstractions.

*See Nancy Lay's article on p. 20 for a discussion of this test.

The students who participated in the meeting, like many ESL students, are highly motivated and aware of how they learn and what they need. Eva, a student from Greece, said it this way: "We learn best when the teachers take into consideration the nature of our language development and the ways that this development is affected by our linguistic and cultural backgrounds. We want to be respected as intelligent people who differ from other students in that we are not yet able to express our thoughts completely in English."

A LOOK AT CUNY'S ESL PROGRAMS

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A comparison of two surveys conducted by the Instructional Resource Center, the first in 1976-77 and the other in 1980, reveals that, all in all, during the past five years, ESL programs at CUNY have thrived.* The news is especially good since the period began amid financial crisis that some feared would end many of the programs. That they have grown and developed instead is attributable to the increased numbers of second-language speakers who have enrolled in the University and more recently to the emphasis on basic skills instruction fostered by the Freshman Skills Assessment Program (FSAP).

The University is smaller than it was five years ago, so that the proportionate increase of second-language speakers is even greater than the increase in actual numbers would suggest. Though no accurate statistics exist, at least one source estimates that fully one-third of the University speaks English as a second language.[1] One thing is certain though: the vast majority of these students are bilinguals who do not need special ESL classes. Still, the number of students in ESL programs has grown significantly during the period, from the 5000 degree candidates estimated from the first surveys[2] to the 7500 reported in the current ones; several programs have actually doubled in size. If we add to this figure those students enrolled in extension courses, we can safely say that more than 10,000 students occupy seats in CUNY ESL programs at this time.

Of course, these students are unevenly distributed among CUNY's nine senior and eight community colleges, so the sizes of ESL programs for degree candidates (which are the subject of this synopsis) differ. Small programs of 250 or fewer students exist at Baruch, Medgar Evers, John Jay,[3] Kingsborough Community, Staten Island, and York. Medium-sized programs of between 250 and 500 students are at Bronx Community, Hunter, Lehman, New York City Technical, and Queensborough Community. Borough of Manhattan Community, Brooklyn, City, Hostos Community, LaGuardia Community, and Queens each has a large program of more then 500 students.

Among the students in these programs, Spanish predominates as the mother tongue, the percentage of Spanish speakers probably having remained steady throughout the past five years. Most of the colleges report that more than 40 percent of their ESL students speak Spanish. Generally however, there are greater concentrations of Spanish speakers in the two-year than in the four-year colleges, the notable exception being Lehman where Hispanics comprise 85 percent of 300 ESL students.

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* The original survey reports were printed by the Instructional Resource Center as College Surveys: A Description of the Skills Programs at the CUNY Colleges. Copies are available for perusal at the Center. I have taken my information from them and from the written reports of the 1980 survey as they existed in draft form on June 19, 1981. With further changes, the current reports will be printed and distributed by the Resource Center in Fall, 1981 as Basic Skills Programs at the City University of New York: English as a Second Language.

Haitian French and Chinese are the two other major first languages across the University, though here again they are variously represented at different colleges. For instance, the College of Staten Island claims more Haitians than Spanish speakers (35 percent and 20 percent respectively), and at Medgar Evers, Haitians comprise 45 percent of the program. Chinese speakers tend to concentrate in the four-year colleges, City College reporting that 21 percent of its ESL students speak Chinese, while at Baruch, Chinese speakers equal Hispanics (40 percent each). There are also a few surprises. Russian speakers are now the second largest group (26 percent) in Brooklyn College's ESL program, while Greek and Korean are the two main first languages among ESL students at Queens College. Many other languages are represented throughout the University; City College alone reports its students come from more than 34 "linguistic backgrounds."

Although administrative and program structures vary widely among CUNY colleges, patterns and trends, perhaps useful to colleges beyond CUNY, can be spotted.

Most CUNY colleges have a single ESL program, but two types of exceptions exist: some colleges also have separate bilingual or SEEK ESL programs. Of the three CUNY bilingual programs, only Lehman's remains separated from the department that houses the ESL program. Kingsborough's ESL program and the ESL component of its bilingual program have been brought under a single administrative head within the English Department. And since Hostos is primarily a bilingual college, one of the main functions of its English Department has always been to provide ESL instruction. Of the SEEK programs located at each CUNY four-year college, most form part of the same department that offers ESL courses, so only one program is needed. However, the SEEK departments at Hunter, John Jay, and Queens comprise independent departments with their own ESL programs, separate from but structurally parallel to the non-SEEK ESL programs at each school.

Every CUNY college recognizes that the language training of ESL students must include instruction in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Even colleges that list their ESL sequences as writing courses, such as Hunter, follow curricula that pay attention to all four modes. Administratively, the trend during the past five years has been toward greater consolidation of all language skills instruction within the same department. This is especially true of reading and writing; speech courses, many of which have been added recently to ESL programs, frequently remain in speech departments. An older structure, whereby each skill was taught by a different department--usually writing in the English Department, reading in a skills department, and speech in the Speech Department--has all but passed out of existence in CUNY, probably because large numbers of student programs cannot be effectively coordinated among three departments. The one program that still has this structure, Baruch's, accommodates 250 students each semester.

The consolidation of comprehensive ESL programs has occurred within three types of administrative units: English departments, basic skills departments, and, recently, ESL programs that stand as independent entities. The only exception is York College, which in 1976 moved its ESL program to the Department of Foreign Languages. Generally, it is not CUNY English departments that absorb ESL programs, possibly because the three service functions of teaching freshman composition, basic skills, and ESL courses strain the instructional resources of a single department. Special circumstances prevail within the four CUNY English departments that do have ESL programs. Two of these programs, Kingsborough's and Staten Island's, are small, while Hunter's English Department shares it remedial and ESL functions with the SEEK Department, and Hostos' serves far more ESL than remedial students. Furthermore, all of these English departments have taught reading as

well as basic writing since at least 1970 and, therefore, had the basis on which to build comprehensive ESL programs when the need arose. No CUNY English department has added service functions during the past five years.

Seven CUNY ESL programs--including four of the five medium-sized ones and two large ones--are housed in departments that serve only one other major instructional function, the teaching of basic skills to native speakers. Two senior and five community colleges have these departments, which are variously named: e.g., Educational Services, Developmental Skills, and Basic Educational Skills. The other three large programs have become independent administrative units during the past five years. At LaGuardia and Queens, ESL institutes, which formerly taught only non-credit courses, have taken on the instruction of degree candidates, while City College has devised an independent program that draws on faculty from several disciplines. In all three instances, the ESL function was moved from English departments.

Many points of similarity and difference that occur generally among CUNY ESL programs are represented in the following table, which shows how language skills are distributed according to numbers of instructional hours per week[4] at each level in four fully developed programs.

Table: Skills Distribution in Four CUNY ESL Programs[5]

(a) Brooklyn (Senior)			(b) LaGuardia (Community)			(c) City (Senior)				(d) New York City Technical (Community)		
W	R	S	I	W	R	I	W	R	S	I	W-R	S
10	5	3	9			9			3	6	3	3
10	5	3	9			6		4	3	6	3	
5	6		8				6		(3)**		7	
5	6		8	(4)	(5)*							
5												
5												
7/68			9/34			10/31				2/28		

I=Integrated skills R=reading ratio=maximum credits/maximum hours
W=writing S=speech

*ESL sections of non-ESL courses.
**A non-ESL course required of ESL students

Eleven of CUNY's ESL programs offer at least three levels of instruction that distinguish among beginning, intermediate, and advanced students. Five offer four levels or more (a and b of Table). The other colleges, mainly those having small programs, offer two.[6] Of course, this means that the total numbers of instructional hours offered by the ESL programs vary greatly,[7] from minimal programs of about three hours per week, all the way to Brooklyn's 18-hour program for students entering at the lowest level. The number of credits granted by the programs also varies, from no credit for the 28 hours of course work offered at New York City Technical and for the 14 hours offered at Queensborough Community, to the 14 credits granted for 24 hours at Staten Island and for 26 hours at York. Most programs,

however, award between seven and ten credits. In general, the senior colleges grant more credit for ESL course work than do the community colleges. The most frequent ratio of total credits to total hours for all programs is one to three. (The Table shows the ratio for the colleges represented.) In programs consisting of many instructional levels, students are not expected to take each level in the sequence, but to move through the program as quickly as their individual rates of progress allow. Students in such programs frequently do not accumulate the highest numbers of credits and hours possible.

The usual curricular strategy among CUNY ESL programs has been to teach all language and academic skills beginning at the first level of instruction, either in companion courses each devoted to a single skills area (a in the Table), or as ten CUNY programs now do, in integrated skills courses (b) ranging from five to ten hours a week; these too are sometimes accompanied by specialized skills courses (c and d). Most first levels, and also some second levels, consist of ten hours of instruction, six programs offering intensive semesters of at least the 12 hours that constitute a fulltime course load. In addition to Brooklyn, City, and New York City Technical Colleges (all shown in the Table), Kingsborough, Queens, and York offer one or more intensive semesters. In subsequent semesters, numbers of instructional hours decrease level by level.

As the Table indicates, some agreement exists as to when particular language skills are emphasized in CUNY ESL curriculums. It is usual for programs to pay special attention to speaking and listening early on (in either speech courses or major components of integrated skills courses), then gradually to shift primary focus to writing, even as the number of program hours decreases, so that finally students are receiving only specialized instruction in composition (a and d of Table). A further trend is developing as a result of the FSAP: writing plays an increasingly greater role earlier in the ESL student's course of study.

Whereas the positions of speech and writing in ESL programs are well defined, the role of reading is flexible. Ten CUNY ESL programs schedule reading courses that parallel either writing or integrated skills courses through two, three, and even four levels of instruction. In at least four of these programs, however, the reading courses are not part of the ESL program, but basic skills courses designed for native speakers of English. In such courses, ESL students first encounter non-ESLers in a classroom situation. Other programs delay specialized reading courses (c of Table), the theory being that grasp of the spoken language must precede reading instruction. Usually the delay is only until the intermediate level, but at Lehman, students do not take any courses devoted exclusively to reading until they have completed their four-level integrated skills ESL sequence. Finally, reading courses that concentrate on specific academic areas are sometimes introduced into the last stages of ESL programs to help bridge entry into the content disciplines. Thus, third-level students at Queens must take a reading course in either the sciences, the social sciences, or the humanities, while last-level students at Hostos must take both "Reading in the Natural Sciences" and "Reading in the Social Sciences."

The courses ESL students are allowed to take outside their ESL programs are usually limited. Level by level, as they achieve greater proficiency in English and as the hours they must spend in ESL classes decrease, their choice of content courses increases. For instance, City College's first-level ESL students can take only one additional course--in either mathematics, a foreign language, or physical education. At the second level, they must enroll in an ESL version of one of the college's required lower-division core courses--but only in either anthropology, art or music. Third-level students are given a bit more fredom; they must take one

or two courses in either mathematics, a foreign language, or physical education and also a second core course, only this time in any discipline and with native speakers of English. At LaGuardia, first-level students take mathematics, second-level students mathematics or Spanish, and third-level students one or two introductory courses in academic disciplines. Fourth-level students can continue their introductory course work, but are also given the option of participating in a 17-point intensive "cluster" program (b of the table) that thematically combines their ESL integrated skills course with ESL sections of writing and reading courses and that bridges their entry into the mainstream of the college curriculum.

Though frequently ESL students first meet their non-ESL counterparts in reading courses and in the content courses they are permitted to take, their ESL programs officially terminate with writing courses. Different programs leave students in different places in the writing curriculum. It is common, especially at the community colleges, for ESL students to pass from ESL writing into the second semester basic writing designed for native speakers. However, the senior colleges tend to see ESL and basic writing as co-terminal, so students pass directly into freshman composition. As a third alternative, some programs administer the CUNY Writing Assessment Test at the end of the ESL program and let the results determine the next writing course to be taken. In at least two instances, ESL students are grouped homogeneously even in freshman composition courses. New York City Technical schedules special ESL sections of its first semester of freshman composition, while Queensborough offers ESL students a three-semester equivalent of its two-semester freshman composition sequence.

To date, diversity has characterized ESL instruction at CUNY, for each college devised its own program, consonant with the professional skills of its faculty, the needs of its particular ESL population, the size of that population, and, of course, the political realities of the institution. However, now that many programs have reached a highly developed stage and now that the University's Freshman Skills Assessment Program has been established, there is growing communication among programs and greater awareness of ESL instruction as a University-wide phenomenon. During the 1980-81 academic year, a consultant committee, appointed by the CUNY Task Force on Writing and made up of ESL faculty, developed a model ESL curriculum which was circulated throughout the University to stimulate an exchange of ideas about the structure, content, and objectives of the University's programs in light of the University's standard of minimal competency in writing.*

The main features of the curriculum are an extended sequence of courses, homogenous grouping based on scores on CUNY's Writing Skills Assessment Test, and flexible movement within the sequence. Rather than being prescriptive, the document is designed to encourage faculty and administration to re-examine their ESL programs and to foster discussion throughout the University about the teaching of English as a second language.

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* See Nancy Lay's article, p. 20 for a discussion of the Freshman Skills Assessment Program's Writing Skills Assessment Test.

Notes

1. City University of New York Student Survey, 1977, p. 21.

2. See Linda Kunz, "Who Are the Students?", p. 3, this issue of Resource.

3. It is difficult to say much about John Jay's fledgling program which serves only about 30 students each semester. Therefore, my generalizations and comments, unless they refer to the college, do not take John Jay into account.

4. Hereafter, "instructional hours" or simply "hours" means "instructional hours per week."

5. Barbara Gonzales describes another program, Borough of Manhattan Community College's, on pp. 31-32 of this issue of Resource.

6. York College offers two ESL tracks, one of three instructional levels and a new two-level track for students whose English proficiency is minimal.

7. I must point out that on many campuses the ESL program and the courses ESL students are required to take do not coincide. Frequently, the second encompasses more than the first. When I refer to ESL programs here, I mean courses designated ESL, those designated exclusively for ESL students.

8. For a fuller description of LaGuardia's "cluster" program, see the article by Rasnida Aziz on pp. 52-53 of this issue of Resource.

In March 1978, as City University was preparing to begin its Freshman Skills Assessment Program, Resource published a special issue devoted to testing procedures at the CUNY campuses. The issue summarized testing in basic skills and previewed the new testing program, outlining the general philosophy and development of the tests. We have chosen to reprint Wolhee Choe's article on the testing of ESL students because the issues she raised in 1978 are still relevant and may help our readers better understand the uses and limits of testing. Following Choe's article, Nancy Lay updates the testing scene in ESL at CUNY with a description of the now-established Writing Assessment Test and its effects on ESL students, faculty, and programs.

PLACEMENT TESTING IN ESL: 1978

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Satisfactory placement of ESL students is difficult for several reasons. First, the developmental sequence of three to five courses set up in CUNY ESL programs has to accommodate stages of second-language learning ranging from students who may be struggling with the simplest English structures to those who demonstrate mastery of mature language. Second, the finest testing device in use is not fine enough to distinguish among all levels of proficiency that exist in entering ESL students at CUNY. Third, the speed with which ESL students progress varies a great deal and cannot always be predicted on the basis of the level at which they start. While there are some students who begin with minimal language competency and who can write college-level English by the end of an ESL sequence, the majority of students who start at the lowest level cannot progress this rapidly.

The ideal of homogeneous ESL classes cannot be attained by placement tests alone, no matter how superbly designed they may be. In view of inherent difficulties of learning a second language, CUNY ESL teachers have fought for a longer and more intensive course sequence while responding to the individual student's need, but their efforts have been consistently thwarted because of the realities of the University in the past three years. Nevertheless the idea of placement tests accurately determining levels of second-language proficiency has not been abandoned, and CUNY testing devices have become finer and more sophisticated as they are constantly reviewed and revised to facilitate grouping students in more homogeneous groups. At the same time, teachers have tried to rectify misplacements and to meet the individual student's needs by various additional means: interviewing the incoming ESL students for placement to supplement written tests has been adopted by a number of CUNY community colleges. A few schools allow course transfers in mid-semester. They have found it useful to provide the possibility of movement during the term since the best available testing device often fails to differentiate between students of differing levels of proficiency except in broad and therefore not very useful strokes. Such a transfer is made possible by the cooperation of faculty and administration and made easy for the students by increasing the number of ESL sections and the paired scheduling of courses in the sequence. These programs schedule several classes of sequential levels to meet on the same day and hour, enabling students to change courses without disrupting their programs. Exceptional students are moved up in the sequence during the term if the teacher believes transferring will help their academic progress.

Details of testing procedures do not vary greatly from college to college. Tests are administered on freshman testing days and ESL students are identified by a questionnaire distributed at the time of testing. Typical questions asked are of the kind

that elicit information on the student's language background: native language, languages spoken at home, number of English courses taken in the United States, year of arrival in the United States, etc.

Most CUNY colleges use both an essay test and an objective reading comprehension or grammar test. The objective tests include both standardized tests such as the California Achievement Tests, the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency, the Stanford Test of Academic Skills, the CUNY Cloze Tests, and various in-house proficiency tests. The objective tests take 50 minutes to an hour and include 40 to 150 items. They are of two types -- multiple choice and fill-in for grammar and comprehension. Lately a good deal of attention has been given to diagnostic testing which attempts error analysis. In the multiple-choice format two kinds of manipulation may be cited: (1) the test supplies semantically controlled distractors so as to determine the process of reasoning in selecting one of the wrong answers in the areas of antonyms, false synonyms, cognates, etc. (2) the test is formulated to reveal the incorrect but consistent choice of certain incorrect forms. These tests are valuable in preparing classroom approaches beyond placement because they reveal students' reasoning as well as areas of confusion and deficient knowledge. However, Cloze tests, rather than multiple-choice tests, seem to measure best what college composition courses are concerned with -- the level of written communication. Cloze tests are favored by a number of CUNY programs in testing the overall proficiency of ESL students and as supplements to essay tests. A passage of about 375 words, which happens to be the required length of in-class essays in most composition classes, is selected at the level appropriate for ESL freshmen, and every seventh word is deleted. (The level should be coordinated with the reading comprehension test.) In filling the blanks, the student has the advantage of thinking grammatically in a clearly delineated context. Furthermore, the randomness of deletions allows measurement of overall proficiency of grammar, usage, and vocabulary.

Writing requirements for placement vary in length from a 75-word paragraph to a three-paragraph essay of 250-300 words. The tests are read both "objectively" and "holistically." When read objectively, grammatical categories singled out include sentence structure, word order, structures of phrases, and mechanics. The practice of cross-reading is common; two instructors compare assessments, and when not in agreement a third reader is called in for final placement. When read holistically, essays are read for clarity of organization, sentence variety, and ideas. (Most programs consider a single writing sample inadequate for accurate placement; a paragraph or an essay written under a highly constrained test situation may reveal very little of the student's level of competence, indicating merely a choice made to conceal his insecurity and uncertainty.)

The question of the most effective and fair method of reading placement essays still remains unanswered. The few colleges which have devised "objective" means of reading essays have attempted to read them not only for placement but also for diagnosis through error analysis. It is deemed desirable to refine the essay reading schemes by introducing the notion of a hierarchy of errors. Errors involving the largest grammatical unit, namely the syntactical errors such as missing subjects or predicates that make sentences incomprehensible, are interpreted as an indication that the writer needs work on the fundamentals of the language. Confused word order or missing sentence elements can thus be considered more serious than an omission of a marker of the kind just described.

Because of the importance of understanding this hierarchy of errors, and of understanding just what a particular error may indicate about a student's language ability, in most programs ESL placement essays are read by ESL teachers. Some errors may indicate necessary stages of language learning rather than a failure in

learning; there are productive errors which may actually indicate a student's incomplete mastery of a linguistic code; this partial mastery may temporarily generate some incorrect forms until the learner refines the code. The trained reader can, in effect, make educated guesses about what certain errors mean -- about just how far along the student is in mastering the linguistic code, and about just how long it is likely to take him to complete this mastery. A number of errors in verb endings, for instance, may be an indication that the student has perceived regularity in the tense system but that he is not able to produce regularly some aspects of tense. Generating correct forms all the time takes much longer than learning the rules. As some of these errors may appear beyond the ESL sequence and perhaps beyond the student's college career, it is important to respond to the ESL student's errors with understanding, distinguishing those that are to be expected as a natural part of the student's language development from those that indicate more serious problems he may have in understanding the way the language works.

TESTING UPDATE: 1981

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City University's Freshman Skills Assessment Program began testing students in reading, writing, and mathematics in Fall 1978. Of the three tests, the writing test affects ESL students most directly, since writing is the most difficult of the language skills to master since and it is through writing that students demonstrate not only what they know, but how well they can say it in English.

The CUNY Writing Assessment Test gives students two topics of which they must choose one and then write an argumentative essay (agree-disagree format) in 50 minutes. All CUNY students must pass this test before they can enter their junior year at the University. If they do not pass upon entrance, colleges must place them in the appropriate courses or program to help them develop English language skills. Students are advised to take a retest at some point in the ESL (or remedial) sequence. Retests are offered at each campus at least once each semester. The test is scored holistically according to a six-point evaluation scale which describes features of writing for the various levels. Although the test does not solve the kinds of placement problems discussed in Wolhee Choe's article, it does serve two important purposes for both ESL and native-language students: 1) it obligates colleges to place students in courses that will help them improve their skills and 2) it aims to ensure the uniform, minimum competence of students as they move into freshman composition courses.

Placement. All of CUNY's ESL Programs use the writing test, that is the writing sample itself, as a guide to placement. They may, in addition, use other tests or personal interviews to determine courses or courses of study students should take. Faculty in most ESL programs find that the evaluation scale is not helpful at beginning ESL levels since a wide range of writing abilities may be encompassed in a single score and that score is usually a very low one. So as in the past ESL teachers continue to implement the CUNY test with additional diagnostic measures.

Competency. Most CUNY ESL faculty agree that the test has had its most positive effect as a measure of readiness for college-level writing courses, i.e., freshman composition. Indeed, the exam has helped set clear and realistic goals for entrance into that course. Nine ESL programs in the University now use the results of the writing test as exit criteria for the final course in their programs preceding freshman composition.

The problem of ESL students completing the ESL sequence and not being judged ready for freshman composition has been a long-standing issue. The use of writing test results as "entrance exams" for freshman composition by more and more colleges will, it is hoped, minimize the problem. It is important to note here that on many campuses, a writing diagnostic test is given during the first week of classes to weed out misplaced students. However, when ESL students suddenly move from ESL to non-ESL they often need time to adjust and, in some cases, more than one writing sample under the pressure of time is needed to indicate writing ability.

Along with the positive effects of the writing test, ESL teachers have called attention to some special problems for ESL students -- some being studied, some being solved, and some simply inherent in large testing programs. Many ESL faculty feel the 50-minute time limit is not sufficient for students to plan, write, and especially, edit their essays. Linda Kunz' study, underway at Hunter College, will attempt to determine the effects of allowing more time to write for both native and non-native speakers.

A second issue ESL faculty have raised concerns the topics students are asked to write about. It is virtually impossible to formulate questions that will please everyone, but it is possible to write questions which do not use colloquial language or idiomatic expressions. It is also possible to avoid culture-bound topics which may leave newcomers to this language at a loss. Over the past two years the CUNY Task Force on Writing, the faculty group which creates new essay topics, has called on ESL faculty to contribute suitable topics and questions for the writing test, so this problem is moving toward solution.

In spite of some drawbacks, I see this test as the beginning of an exchange between ESL faculty and traditional English department faculty who have come to understand the need for a continuous thread in writing skills for ESL students. Moreover, there has been encouraging coordination and articulation between the departments involved. ESL students, too, have recognized the need for a writing standard and have a clearer understanding of what is expected of them.

ON THE NEEDS OF ESL STUDENTS IN FRESHMAN COMPOSITION COURSES

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Last semester at Brooklyn College an intermediate-level ESL student of mine (who would normally have gone into an advanced ESL class) passed the CUNY Writing Assessment Test. Although this student was still making quite a few errors in English, she wanted to go into the freshman composition class and I told her I would be happy to tutor her. During the semester we went over papers that her English teacher had corrected. The corrections were not always helpful to the student.

In one particular four-page paper that we worked on extensively, the teacher had made about 60 corrections. Although most of them were valid because the paper would have been much better if rewritten in the way suggested, the student was overwhelmed by "red ink." Rather than being motivated to improve her writing skills, she felt she was simply no good as a writer and had little hope of making much progress. Any writer might react the same way to a paper with 60 corrections. When making corrections, a teacher should ask, "Am I giving this student a reasonable learning load?" and, "Am I suggesting a useful strategy for correcting these errors?"

In Errors & Expectations,* Mina Shaughnessy explained that we can help students to correct their mistakes by helping them see error patterns. In correcting my own students' papers, I focus on only a few types of errors at a time, making no more than 15 to 20 corrections. I list the lines on which these errors occur and indicate at the top of a paper that students should proofread for these specific types of errors in the future. Given such direction, students are more likely, as Mina Shaughnessy wrote, "to move across the territory of language as if they had a map and not as if they were being forced to make their way across a mine field."

I also found in examining my student's papers that her teacher sometimes failed to explain errors in usage so that she could understand the difference between what she had written and correct English usage. The student who writes, "the lady was a very comprehensive person," is extrapolating from the Spanish word for "understand" (comprender - to understand) and doesn't realize that "understanding" rather than "comprehensive" is the correct word when referring to a person. A further explanation by the teacher might show some proper uses of "comprehensive" such as "a comprehensive plan," or "a comprehensive list." Without such an explanation, the student is likely to avoid using both words altogether, and will have lost two words of her developing vocabulary rather than gaining two.

At Brooklyn College ESL teachers have had a number of meetings with English Department faculty to discuss priorities in evaluating the writing of ESL students who are taking courses in the English Department. We have stressed that ESL students cannot be expected to have the idiomatic command of English that native American students do, and that English Department teachers should not give corrections of idiom usage the same weight they give to, say, errors in grammar which make it difficult to understand a student's meaning.

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* Mina P. Shaughnessy, Errors & Expectations (New York: Oxford University Press, 1977), p. 10.

I am not saying that we should not bother to correct non-idiomatic English. I believe, though, that teachers should first emphasize significant patterns of errors that students can correct. Until a student has control of those categories of errors, teachers should avoid making corrections of expressions or words which are a bit awkward but acceptable nonetheless. As an ESL teacher, I would not like to think that my students would not pass the CUNY Writing Assessment Test or freshman English because of occasional problems with idioms. Their command of idiomatic English will improve throughout their college studies but will never be perfect. There is no point in not allowing them to enter or to pass courses because their English is not completely idiomatic; this will only encourage them to drop out of college.

Although I have commented on corrections by English teachers, I do not mean to imply that all corrections by English teachers are to be criticized -- or that corrections by ESL teachers could not be criticized. I would simply urge all writing teachers -- whether in English or ESL or basic writing programs -- to try to look at their methods of correcting from their students' point of view and to determine if these methods help students to develop their potential as writers.

COUNSELING THE CUNY HISPANIC ESL STUDENT

Alex Cruz
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Lehman College

In my ten years of counseling Spanish-speaking ESL students in the SEEK Program, I have learned two main lessons. First, successful ESL students do more than learn English; they seem to adapt well to the mores and ethos of the prevailing culture. Conversely, it seems that those who do not sufficiently change their behavior and attitudes persist less and fail more. Second, to understand thoroughly the causes of ESL students' success and failure, one must examine their full lives. This is done in "Counseling Latinos" (Ruiz and Padilla, 1977), and "Community Mental Health Services for the Spanish-Speaking/Surnamed Population" (Padilla, Ruiz, and Alvarez, 1975). They suggest that class, culture, language, and institutions are primary forces in the successful transition of ESL citizens. They imply that a comprehensive view of English-as-a-second-language speakers as complete people and as members of a community, is critical to understanding and aiding their learning and changing.

A powerful example of how these forces push, pull, and mold the ESL speaker is offered by Richard Rodriguez in "Going Home Again: The New American Scholarship Boy" (The American Scholar, Winter, 1974). He poignantly describes his own wrenching and stressful evolution from Spanish speaker to English speaker, from family-oriented son to academically-oriented scholer, from the familiarity of poverty to the alienation of a Mexican-American in the Anglo middle class. The transition for many of the ESL students I have worked with seems similar in many respects. They too strive for transformation, for a greater or lesser degree of bilingual-bicultural facility; they too confront obstacles to upward mobility.

Today, however, this transition need not be so stressful if college counselors accept responsibility for obtaining the specific information, perspectives, and techniques that will enable them to communicate successfully with their Latino ESL clients and to counsel them more effectively.

Our counseling experience, as well as that of several authors (Ruiz, Padilla, and Alvarez, 1975; Sue, 1978; Atkinson, Morten, and Sue, 1979), suggests that the counselor's awareness of, and sensitivity to Spanish-speaking ESL students' distinctive language, class, and ethnocultural background relate directly to the ability to counsel these students effectively and can help in their transition. In particular, the counselor is able to facilitate helpful change when he can: 1) speak and understand, both literally and figuratively, the ethnocultural, class, and linguistic language of the client; 2) discern extra-psychic (environmental) from intrapsychic (personal) sources of client stress; and 3) interpret and advocate to program heads and institutional leaders the real needs of the ESL clientele. The first of these abilities is fundamental, for it provides the knowledge and understanding that make the other two possible.

Knowledge of the client's language, class, and culture has been the basic ingredient in our Latino ESL counseling strategy at Lehman. Our first objective was to find qualified counselors with Spanish-speaking bilingual-bicultural backgrounds, who also understood the specific socio-economic experience of our clients. More often than not, we chose counselors who had themselves experienced an urban poor ESL background. They were also deeply committed to education as a means of addressing oppressive social conditions. They all had, or were soon to have, masters-level training in educational counseling or closely related disciplines. We believe that by hiring and developing bilingual-bicultural counseling specialists, we greatly increased our chances

for offering our students services that would support and promote academic motivation, English-language acquisition, and all-around educational growth.

As standard practice, we speak Spanish to incoming ESL freshmen during pre-registration, orientation, and early advisement. Subsequently, we assign each a bilingual-bicultural counselor who also teaches the student's first-semester orientation course. In collaboration with the student's ESL instructor, the counselor and student plan, in effect, an individualized transitional bilingual-bicultural program that might include instruction in the English language and content-course instruction geared to the student's English language skills; often, this means content-course instruction in Spanish. After their first semester, students can continue being counseled in Spanish, either individually or in groups for personal, vocational, and academic matters. Furthermore, we have recently provided for our own Spanish-speaking clinical specialist, who will offer basic psychological services to Spanish-dominant and monolingual Spanish-speaking students. In the past, in-house psychological services were not available in Spanish.

Our students have responded positively. They utilize counseling at a high level. We consider the frequency of counselor contact--to a significant degree self-referred--along with student participation in specialized counseling programs (e.g., workshops in careers and health), as good indicators of success. What most hampers us is that each counselor is now working with more than one hundred students. We are therefore hard pressed to meet the needs of all students in this special population.

Despite this limitation, specialized counselors are far and away more effective than non-specialized personnel, for the background they share with their clients enables them to bring to the counseling encounter understanding and skill that transcend many of the barriers indigenous to cross-cultural counseling. These barriers, and how they affect counseling, are discussed by Atkinson, Morten, and Sue in Counseling American Minorities, A Cross-Cultural Perspective, (1979). The issues these authors raise point to exactly what our counselors actually do.

As these authors define it, culture consists of shared and transmitted behavioral patterns. In addition to such elements as attitudes, beliefs, and customs, culture includes language and class-bound values. The authors posit that the traditional counselor's focus on verbal interaction and rapport presupposes client-counselor common understanding; however, such understanding cannot occur when the counselor does not understand the client's language system and its nuances. Counselors incorrectly perceive and assess their clients.

Similarly, the authors show that the difference in socio-economic background can play a major role in counseling process outcomes. For example, disparities occur between the counselor's and the client's time orientation and attitudes toward sexual behavior. Furthermore, culture-bound values affect the very structure of the counseling relationship, as evidenced by possible client-counselor differences in relation to the role of self-disclosure and structure (ambiguity) in the counseling relationship. Further problems resulting from cultural differences can be that the counselor: stereotypes clients; misinterprets resistance and transference, especially of clients from oppressed classes; fails to recognize countertransference clearly. In a similar way, the client's expectations for growth through counseling are affected by his identification with the counselor. Acutely sensitive to these issues and to the potential problem of their own over-identification with their clients, our specialized personnel are equipped to manage these problems.

Our counseling approach also features another type of functional distinction. Ruiz and Padilla (1977) use the term "intrapsychic" to identify personal and indivi-

dual problems that are independent of ethnic minority membership; they refer to outside stresses that are societal and environmental in origin as "extra-psychic." We try to understand the relative impact of both on student chances for success. We strive to tease out from what students tell us about their lives the intrapsychic problems and extrapsychic stresses associated with class, culture, and minority status. For example, we may focus on existing discrimination against non-English speakers and its effects on their functioning. Identifying sources of stress is crucial to our helping students appraise realistically their personal, vocational, and educational capabilities.

Beyond providing direct services to students, we are also responsible for translating their needs into responsive counseling programs, instructional strategies, and institutional policies. This means our creating conditions and support systems that will improve our counselees' opportunities for success. We communicate directly with program leaders and college and university administrators. In turn, informed leaders have, wherever possible, made favorable modifications, for example, hiring Spanish-speaking personnel. We plan to continue informing and sensitizing leaders to the patterns of extrapsychic problems that affect our students.

Clearly, our experience has shown that the persistence and success of Latino ESL students are directly related to the positive interaction between the language, class, and culture represented by the institution and those of the student. Counselors can be critically important in this interaction when they truly understand the students' needs, use that understanding in direct service to the student, interpret those needs to the institution, and advocate appropriate institutional changes in response to those needs.

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EVOLVING AND CONSOLIDATING: TWENTY YEARS OF ESL METHODOLOGY

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There is nothing new in language learning (Kelley, 1969). In a way. Yet in the last twenty years, the pedagogy of English as a second language (ESL) has developed dramatically, heavily influenced by work in psychology and linguistics, by social events, by political and economic considerations.

When the field came into being--and it really did not exist as such until the mid-sixties--the audiolingual method (ALM) dominated all foreign-language instruction. As a new member of the language club, ESL was equally influenced by behavioral psychology, structural linguistics, and the success of the ASTP (Army Special Training Program) language programs which existed during World War II. It is important to mention the ASTP's success, for it highlights factors--the wide range of student variables, age, education, motivation, aptitude--which must be kept in mind when discussing methodology. At the height of audiolingualism, basic texts designed to teach ESL reflected behaviorist learning principles and presented lessons to condition students through a variety of techniques devised to prevent errors from occurring and to reward students for speech accuracy. At the beginning level, classes were basically rapid-fire oral exercises on English sentence patterns which applied the theory that there were simple and complex structures in a language, the simpler to be taught first and used in turn to understand the more complex in ascending steps. Language was behavior which could be shaped by methodically presenting the system of the language to the students. A teacher presented the system; students were acted upon. The view was as mechanistic as any other application of Skinner's theories.

For a number of reasons, not least of which was the fact that the ALM paradigm did not account for all elements in language learning or all aspects of language itself, the ESL field of language teaching began to search for ways to teach effectively, a search, with its own trials and errors, which while it holds promise, has not ended. That is, in the last twenty years, in reaction to the audiolingual method a number of approaches to language teaching have emerged, but while they have been practiced by some and their strengths and weaknesses argued in professional journals, they have not had a major impact on most teachers in most classes.

The first reaction to the behaviorist view appeared in the sixties with Chomsky's positing of language universals and his distinction between communicative competence (the unconscious mastery of a language system) and communicative performance (the ability to express these ideal forms externally through written and spoken forms). It did not matter that Chomsky dealt with universals and not with second-language mastery, or that Chomsky himself doubted that the work of linguists or psychologists had much to offer foreign language teachers. Theorists (Hymes, 1972; and Paulston, 1972) and methodologists (Paulston, 1972; Rivers, 1973; and Allen, 1967) began to insist that the rationale underlying Chomsky's construct of the language be applied to the classroom and that the need for students to know rules and to use language meaningfully be recognized, preached, and in some cases practiced. Language as behavior became rule-governed behavior.

It is still not out of place, if surprising, to note that the recognition of the need for "meaningful language" was one of the first signs that behavior-oriented audiolingualism was being shaken, for ALM students were asked simply to recite

English patterns in rote fashion. The sense of the words they recited was not important.

It is not too late to comment on meaningful language for another reason, for still, in 1981, texts and many teachers indicate that they see no difference, in terms of student learning, between classroom utterances like this:

Teacher	This is a pen.
Students	This is a pen.

and the following exchange:

Student 1	What have you got there?
Student 2	This? It's my pen.

Yet as early as 1970 the psychologist John Carroll noted that meaningful language--words that had sense for the particular students speaking--aided both memory and recall. In the 1970's the meaning of meaning was extended to include affect. Researchers explored the concept that "depth" associations triggered pleasant (or unpleasant) emotions; that these emotions engaged students in the exercise they were experiencing; and that this enhanced learning (Stevick, 1976).

There is more than one way to review recent developments. Karl Diller (1972), on the one hand, in his Language Teaching Controversy sees no linear development in the field and instead believes that the cognitive code approach, a product of transformational grammar, operated independently of ALM, which was dependent on behavioral psychology and structural linguistics. Another way is to see that this concern with the content of language exercises and the two dimensions of meaning--cognitive and affective--are threads that drew ESL through the cognitive code period into the humanist period which is yet developing. The way we see our students has evolved from the mechanical beings subject to conditioning we saw in language classes in the 1950's to the beings with minds and psyches we now work with.

Cognitive coding and communicative competence and communicative performance reflected movements in psychology and linguistics in the 1960's. Further dimensions were added in the 1970's. The Silent Way developed by Caleb Gattegno, known mainly for its basic tenet that teaching must be subordinated to learning, was actually a reaction to audiolingualism, but, at the same time, seemed to make no reference to the implications of transformational grammar. The Silent Way is similar to audiolingualism in its emphasis on the form of the language and insistence that students can pick up vocabulary rather easily once they have control of the system of language. The important difference was in the dramatic shift in classroom activity: from a teacher-conditioner presenting language, to a group of students working together to piece together the system of the language. In the view here of images of students evolving (avoiding the debate over whether students have not always had the same attributes), students in Silent Way classes now had wills and had to decide to assume responsibility for their own learning. In ESL meetings and journals, if not in texts or in all classes--for the Silent Way is practiced in its pure form by relatively few teachers --attention is given to the active participation of students.

In the age of Esalen, encounter groups, communities, it is not surprising to find humanism developing in ESL theory and practice. Community Language Learning (CLL) or Counseling Learning, is a school developed by the late psychologist Charles Curran. It brings the teacher and student alike as whole persons into the classroom where Carl Rogers' theory of understanding through mutual giving and receiving is nurtured. As with the Silent Way, CLL is a student-centered approach. Student

community is necessary. In CLL classes, students will learn what they want to learn. Hence students determine the content of lessons. In Silent Way classes, teachers present and then stand back as students work together to build on what was presented. In CLL, teachers exploit the basic principle that until the anxiety inherent in all learning situations is released, little learning occurs. Teachers encourage sensitive topics to the degree that students can tolerate them and are prepared to react to what students want to talk about.

At early stages in Counseling Learning--the name of the school does suggest the therapeutic background of its founder--it helps if the teacher is bilingual since students might very well express complex emotions about English and about living in an alien society that call for fairly complex language. The teacher is ideally a counselor, too, a reason perhaps why the approach is not more widely practiced. In its insistence on the importance of the affective domain and its recognition that meaningful content is personal, CLL has made its major contributions.

Suggestopedia also reflects the humanism of the past two decades. A pedagogy based on Georgei Lazanov's work in Suggestology, it attempts to "de-suggest" negative attitudes towards what is being learned and simultaneously to convince students that learning is fun and pleasurable, possible, joyful. Techniques which have been in language classes for centuries, such as role-playing and the use of music (particularly prescribed Baroque pieces), are now consciously used to relax the dominant left-brain hemisphere and to give the imaginative, creative right-brain hemisphere a chance to assimilate the new language. While Suggestopedia representatives say, as do Counseling Learning and Silent Way purists, that the approach is such an organic whole that bits of it cannot be taken out of the system without doing it violence, bits of it will be taken and modified and adapted given the current interest in left-right brain activity. Still, Suggestopedia's gestalt is not in the mainstream of ESL practitioners.

Notional-functionalism, on the other hand, has entered the ESL mainstream and influenced teachers more than anything since audiolingualism at its height. A European movement that has emerged both from extensive work in linguistics--particularly research in discourse analysis[3] and speech acts[4]--and from political and economic considerations, the functional syllabus, despite its pedagogical problems, is likely to be here for quite a while. For while the Americans and Lozanov were nurturing humanism, the British were being very pragmatic and responded to the language needs, as defined by the Council of Europe, of "guest workers" who could not afford to spend two years in school learning grammar or to wait for "Advanced Composition" to acquire language they needed to live and work. The need to identify what the learner has to say and what he needs language for coincided with work in discourse analysis and the study of meta language--the context language is used in: the intent of the speaker, and the roles and relationships between the speaker and listener, the reader and writer.

As a result of the wide swing of the pendulum in attitudes towards teaching ESL, the field is now faced with the problem of reconciling fluency and spontaneous expressions with accuracy and formal mastery of the system of the English language. Grammarians might be surprised that the dilemma is even raised, but the rote recall characteristic of audiolingualism did not seem to be effective with many second-language learners. It is accepted now that sense and student engagement with the language enhance learning. Contemporary approaches provide these features, but authentic student language without guidance may result in language ridden with errors. The balance between accuracy and fluency will probably be struck when present work in second-language acquisition, error analysis, and learning strategies identify characteristics of successful feed-back, an area of study which in its own turn may influence even more the continuing exploration of methodology.

Notes

1. In addition to being uncommunicative, this statement is inappropriate for the situation. If the teacher is standing in front of the class and using the demonstrative pronoun "this," the students should be using "that."

2. The cognitive code approach is the system of language teaching where students study the formal grammar of the language (such as verb conjugations, names of parts of speech and so forth) and do a lot of translating. It is sometimes called the "Grammar-Translation" method of language teaching.

3. Discourse analysis is the study of language in context. For an introduction to this emerging field in linguistics see An Introduction to Discourse Analysis, by Malcolm Coulthard (New York: Longman, 1978).

4. "Speech act" is a general term for any language communication act. The study of speech acts extends beyond the traditional scope of linguistics to include what the utterance means, what the hearer understands, and what the underlying rules in the communications situation are.

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THEORY INTO PRACTICE:
ESL AT THE BOROUGH OF MANHATTAN COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Introduction

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The ESL Program at Borough of Manhattan Community College (BMCC) is part of the Department of Developmental Skills. The aim of the program is to prepare students for entrance into freshman composition. Therefore, we focus on developing college-level expository composition skills. Specifically, we try to train students to write well-organized, logically developed opinion essays which demonstrate adequate command of English grammar and syntax as well as the conventions of formal written English.

We consequently subordinate the improvement of spoken English to the improvement of written English. When students qualify for our advanced level, they are eligible to enroll in a speech class, taught in the Speech Department. Advanced-level students who need remediation in reading may register in reading courses, taught in our own department by the reading component.

In spring 1973, the program started with approximately 200 students and five ESL instructors. By Fall 1980, there were over 600 students, nine full-time instructors, and ten adjuncts. We had established that candidates for teaching positions, adjunct or full-time, must have master's degrees in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) or allied degrees (e.g., English, the teaching of a foreign language, communications) plus a minimum of nine graduate credits in courses which might be included in an accredited graduate TESOL program, and teaching experience with students similar to ours.

We offer two courses. The first is divided into four proficiency levels: beginner (ESL 060), intermediate (ESL 061), high intermediate (ESL 062), and advanced (ESL 083). The first three levels carry no credit; advanced ESL carries three credits.

The second course is ESL 084, an intensive writing course --equivalent to the remedial writing course for native speakers taught by the English Department (ENG 090) -- for ESL students whose written English is very fluent and/or very "American" in flavor, but whose writing shows interlanguage difficulties and a need for instruction by someone trained in the teaching of ESL. This course carries three credits. All our courses meet for six 50-minute hours per week. We schedule classes throughout the day and evening.

We take great care with placement. First, ESL instructors read the placement essays of students who 1) do not pass the CUNY Writing Assessment Test and 2) indicate that English is not their native language. We first determine whether the writing shows that students need ESL or can go into regular English Department remedial writing classes, and then we designate the appropriate level on the essays of those who need ESL. We do all of this initial placement before registration.

Once students are in class, we give them an oral test, a multiple-choice 50-item passive grammar test, and an essay styled after the CUNY Writing Assessment Test essay. In addition, we check each student's performance during the first days of class, and during the first week of classes we transfer to an appropriate ESL course or to an English Department remedial writing class any student who is not properly placed.

Students exit from ESL 060, 061, 062, or 083 into ESL 084, ENG 090, or ENG 100 (freshman composition) depending upon their writing proficiency at the end of the term. Students who remain in the ESL 060-062-083 course can move to higher levels at the end of the term. Students in ESL 084 must pass the CUNY Writing Assessment Test in order to go into freshman composition. Between 30 and 40 percent of all ESL students move to freshman composition every semester.

In all ESL classes there are activities in all language skills: writing, reading, speaking, and listening. However, there is more time devoted to oral English in the lower-level ESL classes than in the higher ones. We develop our own activities, many of which include small-group work and the use of color and visual aids and have game-like qualities to develop thinking skills. Ideally, the activities focus precisely on particular language problems while at the same time allowing and encouraging student imagination and creativity.

Our students shuttle by chartered bus between the College's rented facilities in the vicinity of the low 50's and Broadway and the rented facilities at 68th Street and Amsterdam Avenue, where ESL is quartered. Inevitably, therefore, clumps of students are regularly arriving late while others are regularly departing early to catch the bus. This fact of life toughens both the students and the faculty, all of whom learn to work with constantly changing numbers without dropping a stitch.

The following articles describe what we do on each level in our program -- or at least how five different people chose to work with their students.

ESL 060 (Beginning)
BMCC

MR. GREEN LIVES IN QUEENS

Jean Withrow

Beginning-level ESL students at Borough of Manhattan Community College range in ability from almost no knowledge of English to some ability to communicate basic information, though incorrectly. Sample oral test scores in one class ranged from 0 to 40 out of a possible 82. Writing samples at entrance show that some students can write nothing in English, or almost nothing ("I is new students I lake de univercity"), while others can write several sentences which may get across ideas, but which are filled with the most basic errors ("the incoming when is Freshman, is to much porblems, for the programmans is very dificult, because I dont understand inglish").

However, what a student can or cannot do orally or even in writing may be misleading. Almost all of the students we get have some passive knowledge of English; that is, their scores on a passive grammar exam in which students must select one correct sentence out of three show that most of them have enough acquaintance with English to have already established some criteria for what is correct in English. Thus, scores on a 50-item passive grammar test for the class mentioned above ranged from 22 percent to 46 percent (out of 100 percent). In addition, poor production in speaking and writing may have as much to do with a lack of confidence in English as with a lack of knowledge of English. For this reason, building confidence is as important in beginning level classes as building skills. In fact, the two go hand in hand.

The native languages of beginning-level students at BMCC include Spanish, French or Creole, Chinese, Vietnamese, Arabic, and at times, a scattering of other languages.

The majority of students, however, speak Spanish as their first language. Most of the beginning-level students are recently arrived immigrants to the United States (several months to four years); however, a few have lived here longer, some as many as from 10 to 16 years. Twenty students are registered in a beginning level class at the start of the semester. Some are transferred to higher level classes, and a few drop out during the semester. This leaves an average of 15 to 18 in attendance throughout the semester.

In order to describe a typical beginning level lesson, I feel it necessary to give an idea of what the students worked on prior to this particular lesson. With the class described above, the semester's work began with the sounds of English. Students worked on pronouncing words and strings of words in English by practicing saying numbers and through the use of a chart made up of colored rectangles, in which each color represents a different sound. Students gradually developed criteria for correctness in their production of the sounds of English. At the same time, work began on basic structures: Take a red rod[2] and give it to him. This rod is red and those are white. Put a red rod next to the blue one. There are four chairs next to the table. She has black hair. He can't buy a car because he doesn't have enough money. does he have a blue shirt on? Is he sitting under a tree?

The ultimate structural goad of the following beginning level lesson was the simple present tense, as in: He lives in Queens, but he works in Manhattan.

The lesson began with students producing sentences about a blackboard drawing of the five boroughs of New York City. Using the map as a base, students said what they wanted to about the map and corrected what they said using clues from me and suggestions or models from other students. Using their knowledge of previously learned structures, they produced sentences like: There are five boroughs in New York City. The Hudson River is between Manhattan and New Jersey. Students were given opportunities to make their sentences sound fluent and correct. They each then wrote five sentences about the map. As students wrote, I walked around pointing out errors and helping with corrections.

Then I made the same map on a table using Cuisenaire rods. One of the rods was identified as a person, Mr. Green, and was placed in Queens. The students knew that they were going to create a story about this person and his family. The story was guided; that is, I moved the "people" and suggested verbs such as work, study, take. However, the story itself was generated totally by the students. Because of the nature of the story, the simple present tense, often with third person singular -s, was required.

Finally, the students read the same story on a handout, filling in the missing verbs. They worked in pairs to do this task.

Throughout the lesson, several aspects of English were worked on (work order, grammar, pronunciation, fluency, intonation), and several language skills were practiced (speaking, writing, listening, reading). For much of the lesson, students were saying what they wanted to say, but within the confines of the situation that was given to them and what they could say or learned to say. That is, there was a certain control in the situations so that students could use previously learned structures and skills as a springboard for the new material (new vocabulary, such as north, east of, island, and new structures, such as When it rains, she takes a bus). But there was also a certain amount of freedom in these same situations, so that students who had a greater knowledge of English could challenge themselves to produce more complex utterances (Manhattan is surrounded by water) at the same time as students with less English were comfortable with utterances more directly tied to what they had practiced in previous lessons (Brooklyn is next to Queens.).

This class meets three days a week, for one hour and 40 minutes. In addition, some students take advantage of individual or small group tutoring in our ESL Lab for one or two hours a week. At times, I ask students to do a short homework assignment that follows from a lesson; for example: Write a few sentences or a paragraph that describes a photo of a family member. About one month into the semester, the students began to use the book 10 Steps, a controlled composition book for beginning and intermediate ESL students. Assignments from this book are ongoing and individualized. Students bring their assigned passages to the class, put them on the desk at 8:00, and pick them up at 9:40. I correct the papers at some point during the lesson (when students are writing or working in groups) and write on each person's paper the title and step number of the next composition. Students repeat a step (a task, such as "Rewrite the entire passage changing the word landlord to landlady.") until they make no errors on that step. They then move on the the next step.

ESL 061 (Intermediate)
BMCC

HOW DEW BECOMES BRIGHT PEARLS

Gay Brookes

An intermediate ESL course at BMCC includes a range of students. Some speak very little English and write like this: "One upon a time a young girl whose before her dinner it was pleasure to eat candies. Her mother all the time say don't eat to much candy because..." Some speak quite a bit more fluently and, occasionally for homework, write like this: "Spring has come back. All the plants, trees and flowers are in full bloom. In the morning, when the sun comes up, its rays shine on the green leaves and make the dew become bright pearls."

The average student in the class speaks rather haltingly, comprehends about 35 to 50 percent of normally spoken English, scores between 35 and 50 on the John Test, a test of oral proficiency, and writes like this: "On the summer time I like to go to the beach, but I like the beach to have trees and emergency system."

Twenty-four students are registered for this class; about 21 make it on a given day. Four are Haitian, three are Chinese, and 17 are Hispanic from the Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico, and Ecuador.

At 8:00 a.m. exactly, ten students are in place in seats of their choice. Smiles, greetings, chatter. The first activity, I decide, will be something that people can enter into as they arrive in the next few minutes "Subways," they say. Today it is a scrambled sentence; and the instructions are to make one sentence using all the words:

BMCC	programs	like	data	offers	variety
career	processing	science	and	secretarial	a

It engages their attention. Rosa hits her dictionary, one of these 2" x 2" books that looks like a prize in a Cracker Jack box. I move around to see how they are getting started. Looks all right. The challenge was just right. "I got it," calls Jose. He reads: "BMCC offers a variety of career programs like data processing, science and secretarial." I ask if science is a career program. Sylvia waves her hand. "Secretarial science," she says and everyone nods. Jose puts the final version on the board. Some discussion and he runs back to add the period at the end. Is it OK? Yes! Is it true? Yes! I ask them if they can change some words in it to make an

original sentence of their own. Silence. Mei-ying offers one: "New York City offers a variety of tourist attaction like the Statue of Liberty and Bronx Zoo." Others are put forth and I ask them to write them down. With a few signals from me, they fix their mistakes.

The class has come together. It is 8:30 and they have put together a sentence, made choices based on grammatical forms, judged the correctness of written forms, made up a sentence of their own, and listened to the sentences of others.

Now we will read a couple of compositions written by members of the class for a previous assignment. These are each about 100 words long, written at home by the students, handed in, and typed correctly (errors fixed) by me. Students volunteer to read aloud the different paragraphs. Abel starts and reads word by word, rather haltingly. It is agonizing. I suggest to him that he look and think ahead as he reads. He starts over and finishes the paragraph with much more fluency. After we have read the composition through, we discuss it. They ask what certain words mean. Or I ask them if they understand certain sentences. Even though written by one of the students, not all the meaning gets through to all the students. For example, the line, "its rays shine on the green leaves and make the dew become bright pearls." Today I ask them which sentence they like. They pick out and read a sentence that appeals to them. Their taste is unerring, insofar as they choose sentences that I like as well. I ask them why they like a particular sentence. They give reasons like, "It is poetic." "I can see it." "It's nice." One student, Jose, likes the sentence that includes a list: "food, fruit, soda, plates, glasses, chairs, and blankets." He says he likes the first three best and wonders why not "beer." Their interaction with someone's writing is on a level that few people have with written words, especially in a second language. These discussions can go many places but today we stop with this.

I give a homework assignment before I forget. Do a 10 Steps[3] composition (controlled composition) for the next class. For next Monday (five days away), choose one of the following or do both: 1) Find an old family photograph and write about it; 2) If you found a $100 bill, how would you spend it. We talk about these for a few minutes. The idea of digging out the family photo album turns them on.

Finally, I have prepared a cloze exercise, a passage of about 125 words about a family going on an outing. It has a slight narrative flow to it which I have found helps low-level students hold to the meaning. Every fifth word is left blank. The instructions are to fill in each blank with one appropriate word. Most of the missing words are function words in this particular cloze, but even with some of those the students have a degree of choice. I ask them to work together, two or three people, and they pull their chairs close. There are about 25 blanks, a length that seems good. They work together well and call me over only occasionally to help or confirm. When they have finished, about 25 minutes later, we go over the sentences and their choices. When there are options, they consider which word sounds better and usually choose one over another. When we have finished, Joseph says, "This is very good." He waves the paper to make it clear he means the activity. I ask them if they learned anything today. They say, "Oh, yes." Before I can ask "what," the school bus appears and one student spots it through the window. Well, so much for feedback today. A few stay around to get me to correct their 10 Steps[3] compositions, assigned as homework on an ongoing basis. Chatter, greetings, smiles to the next group of students arriving. One hour and forty minutes, three times a week. I gather homework compositions fluttering around on the desk and stuff them into my folder.

ESL 062 (High Intermediate)
BMCC

TEACHING THE PASSIVE VOICE

Janis Jones

Most of the students entering the high-intermediate level have studied the simple present, present continuous, simple past, past continuous, and future tenses. At the high-intermediate level they study the future continuous, the present and past perfect tenses, and modal auxiliaries. All of these are reviewed or studied through the use of x-words[4] (auxiliaries and modals) and verb forms. After seven weeks of class -- after the midterm examination -- I generally set aside six classroom hours to teach the passive voice.

To begin with, the students and I read the definition of and the rules governing the use of the passsive voice in the ESL Grammar Workbook II[5]. We read and discuss each rule and review certain essential vocabulary such as agent, doer, receiver, Transitive, intransitive, and object. Most of the students find it difficult to grasp the new vocabulary. Therefore, I first give them a handout to work on. The sample active voice sentences use all of the tenses which the students have already studied.

The group works together to identify the subject (performer of the action), state whether the main verb is transitive or intransitive, and identify the object (direct or indirect) if there is one. They also have to identify the tense in each sentence. A point of great confusion is that neither passive nor active voice is a tense. I have to reinforce over and over again that tense is determined by the x-word and the verb form

Next, all of the forms of the verb be go on the board: be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been. I then ask the students to go back to the sample active voice sentences and rewrite in the passive voice the ones with transitive verb phrases.

Samples: My mother has baked a cake for the party.

Your friend has asked us to visit her.

Our mother was serving dinner when we got there.

To help the students in the rewriting, I instruct them to take the subject in the active voice sentence and place it in the object position in the passive voice sentence by using the word by. I also instruct them to take the object of the verb in the active voice sentence and make it the subject of the passive voice sentence. The students may be somewhat confused at first because many of them forget that in some cases they have to turn the object pronouns into subject pronouns and vice versa. Once I remind them, they are usually able to rewrite the sentences, but not necessarily correctly.

To work on errors in tense, I ask them to write the sentences on the board. As we review each one, they refer back to the original active voice sentence for comparison, which seems to help them correct their work. Once they can identify the tense of the passive voice sentence (I erase the main verb, leaving the x-word or auxiliary) and compare it with the tense in the active voice sentence, they can usually spot their errors and correct them. It is at this point that they really begin to understand and accept the difference between voice and tense.

Next, I assign several pages of exercises in the grammar workbook. They construct both affirmative and negative passive verb phrases. As we review the exercises, I ask the students to turn each of the passive voice sentences into the active voice. This is the point where they generally become aware of the real importance of the passive voice. Look at the sentences below.

Smoking is not permitted in the front of the theater.

My radio was made in Japan.

The house was built in 1800.

When they try to convert these sentences into the active voice, they perceive the non-relevance of the performing agent in some sentences and realize the need for the passive voice construction.

I assign additional pages in the workbook for practice in using passive verb phrases containing modals. These do not present as much of a problem as do the use of the double auxiliary from the verb be (e.g., They were being asked to make a statement.).

Sometimes I have to review the construction of the two continuous tenses through the use of x-words and verb forms in order for the students to comprehend the need for the additional form of the verb be in the passive voice. We then review and correct the workbook sentences.

Finally, I give the students a quiz in which they are to use all of the passive voice constructions they have studied.

ESL 083 (Advanced)
BMCC

CRIPPING WAFFERLY

Bill Bonham

At the advanced ESL level, the pen (or pencil) becomes mightier than the spoken word. Although there is some time devoted to oral work -- notably in class discussions that often lead to pronunciation correction as well as idea-sharing -- the focus at this level is on writing. It is the students' first encounter with a course that shifts the weight to writing skills; thus, they often need to be reminded of the distinctions between oral and written communication, as well as of the levels of formality that are used depending on their audience (friend, sweetheart, boss, professor, etc.). Since the ultimate goal is jumping the hurdle by passing a final exam in which they must write a composition, the organization and support of an argumentative essay are essential elements to teach.

The Spring 1981 class that I taught was composed of 29 students. While the overwhelming majority were speakers of Spanish, there were also representatives from the Chinese, Creole, and French language groups. All students were comfortably fluent with English, but many slipped into their first language to communicate with classmates when they wished to express complex ideas. When reminded that it was an English class, their response was identical to their major writing complaint: they simply didn't have the sophisticated vocabulary to express themselves precisely in English. "It was

something important," they would say when chided for resorting to their native languages. True enough, many of the students were lacking in the kind of vocabulary they would have liked to have, but all of them could -- and often did --express their ideas clearly, if not grammatically. Word order, preposition usage, and verb endings were outstanding language bugaboos that led to such sentences as, "She go always on the lounge to studied." These slips of the pen were often the focus of classroom activities during which students were asked to correct errors made by their peers. They were often successful in zeroing in on the mistakes quickly, as long as the writer was somebody else! Far less successful were their attempts at correcting their own papers. Self-editing was, for this reason, another major thrust of the course.

Here is what happened in the classroom on a typical Monday morning. We began with a ten-minute writing, an activity in which the students are given two or three general topics to choose from and are asked to write for a ten-minute period without stopping. The emphasis is on communicating thoughts and developing fluency on paper, so such demons as spelling, verb tenses, and punctuation are banished from consideration. These writings were always collected and read, but instead of correcting the errors, I wrote a comment at the bottom of each paper responding to the ideas expressed. (Later, when students are comfortable with this activity, it can be modified to include a five-minute editing period following the ten-minute writing. This is helpful in training them to look at what they've written.)

Because many students found word forms (marry, marriage, married) and word order a problem, the next activity was designed to develop an awareness in these areas. The following sentence was written on the board, "Maria cripped the song wafferly." After a moment of stunned silence, the students were told that the unfamiliar words had come from an ancient form of English that had long since died out. (A lie later confessed to!) I suggested they look for clues in the sentence to determine what kind of word they needed to change these unfamiliar words into modern English. Because it was a simple sentence, it wasn't long before they came up with translations, such as, "Maria sang the song beautifully." They were then asked to explain how they had determined which words to substitute, and they quickly pointed out that the -ed ending, coupled with cripped's position in the sentence, called for a verb. Likewise, the -ly ending and the sentence position of wafferly demanded an adverb. Once this was understood, the students were given a sheet containing several more sentences of this type, all of them more challenging than the sample they had just worked on. A typical sentence was "Bibbling is a tood that Emmanuel really snorks." The class was divided into small groups to work on replacing all the nonsense words with real English. Once the groups had been given adequate time to translate, the class was brought back together to go over the sentences. Most of the groups were very successful in turning sheer nonsense into good, grammatical English. By the time the class had gone over several sentences, even those students who were somewhat bowled over by yet another language had gotten the idea and were easily replacing the nonsense words. It should be pointed out that the emphasis for this activity was not on learning the names of the parts of speech, but on getting familiar with the functions of the words and recognizing their positions in an English sentence.

The final part of the lesson was designed to elicit opinions --first oral, then written. I told the class a story that involved several characters, one of whom eventually was murdered. While it was clear who had killed her, all of the other characters had behaved in ways that could have contributed to her demise, depending on one's point of view. Thus, it was possible to have many answers to the question asked at the conclusion of the story: Who was responsible for the woman's death? This led to a lively discussion during which all of the characters were blamed by one or more class members. When all the students had given their opinions, they were asked to consider all points of view and then write compositions stating their own beliefs and

discussing reasons to support them. While most writing assignments took place in the classroom, this one was given as homework because time had run out.

Advanced ESL students come to a class with the ability to understand fairly sophisticated concepts and to express themselves quite clearly. They need a wide variety of activities to develop their writing; the samples mentioned above are merely a small part of the spectrum. Most students are eager to sharpen their writing skills and are open to trying a variety of techniques to accomplish their goal. It is a challenge to find ways to help them use their pens and pencils mightily.

ESL 084 (Intensive Writing)
BMCC

AT THE TOP

Eleanor N. Frōrup

At BMCC, the highest level ESL course offered is 084. It is an intensive writing course designed to prepare students for freshman composition.

In my present ESL 084 class, the native (first) languages of the students are as follows: Albanian, Chinese, Creole, French, Korean, Russian, Spanish, Vietnamese and Tagalog. The number of years that these students have resided in the continental United States ranges from one to eighteen. Ten completed high school in the United States. Just about all of them received some formal instruction in English in their native countries. These students feel at ease with English -- therefore, they do not use their native languages in the classroom; they speak English.

Generally speaking, the students enrolled in this course are fluent in English. That is, even though grammatical and syntactic errors are evident in their speech, they can communicate their ideas clearly, for the most part, and participate in discussions. The degree of control of written English is more varied from individual to individual. In some cases the range of sentence patterns is more limited. For example, a few students rely heavily on compounding (especially with and). As a result, they not infrequently write very lengthy sentences, cramming a number of points (ideas) into one sentence. A mature writer would express these ideas in more discrete units, thereby giving the ideas greater prominence. In other cases, the variety of sentence patterns may be greater. However, incorrect word order or the inappropriate choice of vocabulary makes the sentences awkward, though not always unclear. A few students have a wider repertoire of sentence patterns; they make greater use of subordination, relativization, and inserts. This group also has a more highly developed awareness of sentence boundaries.

Most students have difficulty choosing the appropriate form of a word (e.g., advantage/advantageous, education/educational). Furthermore, errors in tense, agreement, and the use of pronouns persist, even in the writing of the more proficient students. Apparently, it takes a considerable amount of time for non-native speakers of English (of diverse linguistic backgrounds) to gain complete or near-complete control of these sub-systems of the English language. Finally, there is a need for greater control and use of appropriate transitional devices, which would make the students' compositions more cohesive.

The class meets twice a week for two-and-a-half hours each session (six college hours). Classroom activities are varied, so students have opportunities to work on

reading comprehension (articles are often used as springboards for discussion and a follow-up composition), grammar, sentence structure, composing essays, and editing skills. Below is an account of a lesson whose activities address themselves to a composite of skills.

The initial portion of the lesson was devoted to sentence structure and punctuation. First of all, three sentence patterns that had been introduced earlier were reviewed -- 1) basic sentences with only a subject and a predicate; 2) sentences with introductory phrases or clauses (with or without commas); and 3) sentences with clauses in end position, that is after the subject and predicate. The two new patterns introduced were 1) compound sentences and (2) sentences with linkers (e.g. therefore, however). It was established beforehand that all of the sentences that students generated would be on the topic New York City. Establishing a topic makes it easier for students to compose sentences and allows for the building of sentences in a logically related order. Cuisenaire rods[2] (each color represented a different sector in the sentence) were used to elicit sentences from the students. At the end of this activity, there was a period for explanation, clarification, and formulation of comma rules.

The second acitvity focused on recognition of the sentence patterns that had been reviewed and introduced earlier. Students were given a handout which consisted of sentences from an organized paragraph in scrambled order. In pairs, they identified the patterns. The responses were checked with the entire class.

Using the same handout, the pairs of students worked on organization. They arranged the sentences in logical order to form a well-organized paragraph. To make the activity more meaningful, various students were asked for the order in which they had arranged the sentences. After eliciting a few of these combinations, the students were asked to arrive at a unanimous decision, which forced them to examine the wording of the sentences carefully, looking for clues (chronology, cause/effect, generalizations versus specific examples).

Finally, students worked on a composition that they had written in a previous session. They were asked to work in pairs. They were free to choose a partner. The only restriction was that the partner not speak the same native language. I imposed this restriction because I felt that when the students got around to editing for errors in grammar and syntax, they would be more helpful to each other because errors that could be attributed to interference from the native language might be more easily recognized and corrected. The students first read each other's composition with an eye to organization and development of ideas. Last of all, they were asked to edit for errors in grammar, sentence structure, and punctuation. The rewriting of the composition was assigned for homework.

Thirty students were originally enrolled in this class. Three dropped out. One withdrew officially but continued to audit the course. A total of 26 attended regularly. They used two texts, Developing Reading Skills[6] and The Ways of Written English[7]. Students could attend the ESL Lab or weekend tutorial sessions, which a number did. They were free to see me for individual help during my office hours or by appointment. Also, they were assigned extra work from Inturrisi's book[7] which gave them an opportunity to focus on problems that were unique to them as individuals.

Notes:

1. The John Test: A Test of Oral Proficiency for ESL Placement. New York: Language Innovations, Inc., 1975

2. Cuisenaire rods, used originally in the teaching of mathematics, are sticks of wood of varying lengths and colors used for language teaching. They serv to set up external or figurative situations and create relationships that can be talked about.

3. Gay Brookes and Jean Withrow, 10 Steps: A Course in Controlled Composition for Beginning and Intermediate ESL Students (New York: Language Innovations, Inc., 1974).

4. "X-word" is a term used in sector analysis, the system of tagmemic analysis developed by Robert R. Allen of Teachers College, Columbia University. X-word grammar is defined as "the classroom applications of the sector analysis of English to written sentences." See Linda Ann Kunz, "X-Word Grammar: Offspring of Sector Analysis," Journal of Basic Writing, Spring/Summer 1977, pp. 63-76.

5. Allen Kent Dart, ESL Grammar Workbook II (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978).

6. Louise Hirasawa and Linda Markstein, Developing Reading Skills, Advanced (Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1974).

7. Louis Inturrisi, The Ways of Written English (New York: Language Innovations, Inc., 1980).

THE COLLEGE TEACHING OF ESL: 3 HOURS, 3 CREDITS

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Griping about the inadequacies of college teacher preparation is fairly standard accompaniment to the stale coffee of faculty lounges. Back in the days when there was only one English grammar, only one method to teach a language, when anybody who could speak English could teach ESL (but one needed a doctorate to teach composition to standard speakers with SAT scores of 500 and up), nobody paid the slightest attention to the preparation of college teachers in any discipline. Graduate schools trained researchers, and there was no reason for them to do otherwise. In ESL, since we were teaching language, then being equated to speech by self-defined revolutionaries, we were considered to fall somewhere between cheerful informants and drill sergeants inflicting the cruel and unusual punishment of pattern practice and substitution drills upon the powerless. All we needed was a three-credit methods course in which we learned how to prepare audio-visual materials ("ESL materials, from flash cards to film strips: 3 credits"), a recipe book of things to do in the classroom ("How to use role playing to teach telephone usage"), and a workbook full of exercises. That was later updated to a 30-credit master's, but even then, college teaching existed only as a sort of mission ary tutorial staffed by faculty wives whose wages tended to be linked to the going rate for babysitters, unless the service they provided was called extending hospitality, in which case the college could hardly be expected to pay for the cookies.

That was then. This is now. Colleges are admitting foreign students from developing countries who were inadequately prepared for college by impoverished public education systems staffed by poorly trained teachers holding three jobs simultaneously. They are admitting immigrants taught English by teachers who could not speak, read, or write English. (In Mexico, I was told of a lesson observed in which the simple present of to be was conjugated: I be, you be, he bes...). They are admitting immigrants with interrupted educations; and students who completed fifth grade and then, twenty years later, earned a GED in their native language after a three-month preparatory course. These students are to be taught together with a handful of traditional foreign students, and all are expected in CUNY to pass written proficiency examinations normed with native speakers of American English, and ideally to do so within two years of their admission to the University; almost everywhere, they have to take and pass a final composition course designed for native speakers of standard, edited American English that is simultaneously an introduction to literature.

How do you prepare the ESL students now in urban public colleges to achieve such goals? How do you prepare the teachers to do the job? In other words, how do we define the discipline of TESOL (The Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages) in 1981? That, too, is a faculty lounge topic, until one is asked to do it as a three-credit course, for a real group of students who are already college faculty, mostly tenured, and who already teach basic writing or ESL, but who have not been prepared to teach college English to ESL students and have the honesty and academic integrity to say so. If they all teach in the same college (in this case, Essex County College, Newark) and their instructor is from somewhere else (Lehman College, CUNY) and this is a faculty retraining program in an institution under going retrenchment, then whatever the people taking this course know about TESOL is going to be what TESOL is on their campus.

Furthermore, there has to be a reason why people in a state that has institutions offering graduate degrees in TESOL apply to an instructor in a public college in another state to teach them something for which they have to pay high out-of-state tuition. It can only be that a classroom teacher of ESL in CUNY knows a few things that are not taught in graduate programs of TESOL by teacher trainers, and knows enough about time management and task analysis not to waste even moments on irrelevancies. These people wanted a course that would include what they needed and exclude what they couldn't put to use, and preparing that course for them forced me to define everything I do and why I do it. It taught me that the why always comes before the what, and that last of all comes how.

If we are teaching people to use a language, and specifically the variety of that language used in the academic subculture, for the purpose of earning an academic degree, then we are teaching the written language and its oral analog, Standard English. The first thing a college teacher of ESL must know, then, is the process by which adults learn languages; not psycholinguistics in general but very specifically, adult second-language acquisition, and particularly written language acquisition, because it is proficiency in the written language that determines academic success.

Furthermore, given the kind of student population we serve, psycholinguistics cannot be separated from sociolinguistics. ESL students in urban public colleges are almost invariably people who have not achieved mastery of the academic variety of their native languages. They are usually native speakers of a non-standard dialect or a language with no written form, and have often acquired some non-standard English outside the classroom. Since non-English-speaking adults are people fully acculturated and socialized in a culture quite different from that of American academia, the relationship between language and culture as well as non-verbal aspects of behavior influencing language usage must be taken into consideration, especially if we define the teacher's role as facilitating and accelerating language acquisition. For example, the semantic implications of polychronism vis-a-vis a monochronic rhetoric and verb system can simply not be ignored in an ESL composition course, because when it is ignored, the failure rate for Hispanic students is 100 percent.

Thus, an ESL teacher must know how people learn languages and what the structure of the English language is, not for a theoretical discussion of the types of grammar there are, but to know that a language system is rule-governed and that those rules must be understood, accepted, utilized and internalized if one is to achieve fluency, mastery, and ultimately, dominance of the language of instruction of the college. Most people with degrees in English or even linguistics have only a fuzzy notion of the rules governing the use of articles, participles, prepositions and word order, to name just four of the factors that determine intelligibility. However, ESL teachers have to know those rules well enough to teach them. ESL teachers also have to know the English sound system not just for the intellectual kick of it, or only to help people speak intelligibly (though this is not to minimize the importance of proper and adequate instruction in speech). For non-traditional college students, phonological interference is so significant that one cannot teach writing without attention to pronunciation. There is almost no published literature to cite here, but what experienced CUNY ESL teacher does not know this for a fact?

No textbook in existence combines the material needed for a course like this, so no single textbook can be selected. Instead, a range of quite basic books on these and other significant topics must be assigned, which means that some comparison/contrast between ESL/EFL and between adult students and all other learners must be included, lest the same omissions in every other teacher-training course be made in this one, too.

All this means that still another aspect of TESOL must be part of the course: methodology; at least it must be introduced, for it should be given a full course of its own. How does one teach college ESL? How does one structure a curriculum? A syllabus? On what basis does one select textbooks, determine entrance and exit criteria, test and place? Again, almost no help can be expected from the published literature, which ignores the population of language learners we deal with. What methods does one select, and how does one combine them, so that the essays written or textbooks read will be on a level appropriate for the instruction to be received in all departments at the college? To what extent should the methods used be controlled by the definition of proficiency determining final exit from the ESL program? To what extent should they be determined by the level of proficiency of the students upon their entry into the program? These are typical of the questions ESL instructors must be able to answer, and they must also be able to implement those answers. In ESL, theory does not remain theory very long. It is translated into practice that changes people's lives one way or another.

Consequently, all the various methods available must be accessible to the instructor, and the uses, advantages and disadvantages of each separately and in combination with others must be clear. Of course one cannot deal with all that in detail together with everything else that has to be covered, but a beginning must be made, particularly because TESOL methodology is quite different from that relevant to any other college course. In this case, basic writing with its controversies about methods is very close to the TESOL classroom, to which some participants come only ten minutes after teaching a basic writing section, and the whole question of the relationship of language instruction to the development of writing ability is a form of interference that may not be ignored. Far too many basic writing instructors think that the only way to facilitate language acquisition is to do discrete item drills--fill-ins, transformations, substitutions. They either build them into the course on the naive assumption that good writing will miraculously result from that busy work; or they exclude all attention to written language acquisition on the assumption that one can learn to write well without command -- let alone dominance -- of the written language. When basic writing teachers approach TESOL, they want, and very often are openly seeking, much more information about the relationship between product and process, and a much more detailed definition of linguistic process than is available in the literature on basic writing. A TESOL course is a good place to get that kind of information and the insights that accompany it, but only if the instructor can clarify the considerable differences between second-language and second-dialect acquisition, including (but not limited to) intuitive knowledge of different native languages, passive knowledge of different vocabularies and language systems, and totally different oral and rhetorical traditions.

Most TESOL training stresses method and mixes it with content in such a way that method becomes primary, and linguistic content is sometimes left to be implied from it. Thus ESL teachers have been accustomed to separating the two, differentiating between ESL and "content" courses. In actual fact, in the integrated skills ESL courses taught in CUNY, skill (i.e., reading, writing, speaking, listening) is no more than 50 percent of the course. Linguistic content -- the language -- is at least 50 percent. The relationship between the two is established and effected by the teacher, and takes a considerable amount of the teacher's attention, as do diagnosis and error analysis. It therefore makes sense not to allocate psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics to a linguistics department, rhetoric to an English department, phonology to a speech department, TESOL methodology to an education department, and semantics to the philosophers. It is more logical to prepare the teacher as thoroughly as possible in the language and the way adults acquire it, and have the curriculum, syllabus, and methodology follow from that.

This, I think, is the direction in which the training of teachers of ESL will have to go. It should have gone that way originally, but for the assumption that, since it is a low status profession, in fact a stigmatized profession, the only people who would choose it would be temporary employees like graduate students in linguistics going on to higher employment, those who "cannot hope for anything better" (education majors who want an MA in something "easy") or those not really serious about professional achievement -- missionaries, faculty wives, and volunteers from the junior league. It was reasoned that the serious thinking would have to be done by serious people -- the graduate faculty -- which ESL teachers would of course never ever be. Such is the way that we were defined in the past. Now, the times that were a-changing have changed. TESOL as a profession has come of age, and so must the graduate preparation of teachers.

A BASIC BIBLIOGRAPHY IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE FOR WRITING TEACHERS

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(with help from Leslie Beebe, Gay Brookes, Nancy Frankfort and Carolyn Gilboa)

As the numbers of first and second generation immigrants in higher education grow, more and more college teachers find students in their classes whose native language is not English. Teachers of basic writing, freshman composition, and of all subjects across the curriculum are baffled by the way these students write and puzzled by some of their reactions to topics, rhetorical forms, journals, error correction, collaborative learning, and many other tools of the teachers' trade.

The following eleven books will introduce writing teachers to research in second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and applied linguistics, to cultural contrasts, to theories of language learning and approaches to language teaching, and to approaches to the teaching of ESL.

Brown, H. Douglas. Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1980.

An examination of current research in linguistics, psychology, and education as it relates to language learning and teaching. Particularly useful are the chapters on "Sociocultural Variables" and "Comparing and Contrasting Two Languages." Contains annotated lists of further readings.

Burt, Marina and Carol Kiparsky. The Gooficon: A Repair Manual for English. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House, 1972.

A collection of frequent errors and explanations of what is grammatically behind those errors. Suggests a useful hierarchy of error types--global (overall) and local (minor)--and ways of dealing with them. Chapters on "Sentential Complements" and "Psychological Predicates" contain good examples, explanations, and strategies for writing teachers puzzled by ESL students' sentences.

Corder, S. Pit. Introducing Applied Linguistics. Harmondsworth, England: Penguin, 1973.

Contains sections on "Language and Language Learning," "Linguistics and Language Teaching," and "The Techniques of Applied Linguistics." Particularly useful for composition teachers are the chapters on "Language as a Symbolic System," "Psycholinguistics and Language Teaching," and "The Study of Learners' Language: Error Analysis."

Croft, Kenneth, ed. Readings in English as a Second Language. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Winthrop Publishers, 1980.

This collection includes articles on sociolinguistics, adult learning strategies, fossilization, survey of research, affective factors, cultural variables, non-verbal communication, testing, and models of second-language acquisition, notably Krashen's Monitor Model.

Hall, Edward T. The Silent Language. New York: Doubleday, 1959.

An introduction to non-verbal language, the patterning of behavior that determines the way we (and the students in our classes) handle such cultural variables as time, spatial relationships, change, and social organization.

Quirk, Randolph and Sidney Greenbaum. A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1973.

An accurate, descriptive, and very detailed grammar, drawing from traditional, structural, transformational, and tagmemic bases. There is far more here than in the usual handbook. Excellent sections on prepositions, two-word verbs, sentence correction, and focus, theme, and emphasis. Uses enlightening methods of classifying and categorizing, always with clear examples. Difficult, but a feast for grammar fans.

Raimes, Ann. Problems and Teaching Strategies in ESL Composition, 14 in Language in Education series. Arlington, Virginia: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1978.

The problems discussed are sentence structure and grammar, rhetorical structure, reading, vocabulary, spelling and idiom, content, and attitude toward English. Each section contains examples and discussion of the problem and suggests classroom strategies.

Schumann, John and Nancy Stenson, eds. New Frontiers in Second Language Learning. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House, 1978.

The two parts of this collection of articles deal with error analysis (multiple sources, including teacher-induced error, and practical procedures for error correction) and with the contribution of error analysis to our understanding of second-language acquisition. Includes articles on interlanguage, creolization, and the significance of learners' errors.

Stevick, Earl W. A Way and Ways. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House, 1980.

Presents a personal view of some current approaches to ESL: the Silent Way, Counseling Learning, and Suggestopedia, and their implications for the learner. Constant emphasis is placed on the learner's feelings and fears. Raises questions about what we do in the classroom and why. Includes an interesting section on Krashen's Monitor Model and Stevick's own basic bibliography for language teachers.

Trillin, Alice and Associates. Teaching Basic Skills in College. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1980.

The chapter by Linda Ann Kunz on "English as a Second Language" gives a detailed account of the City University of New York's various approaches to teach-

ing ESL. Describes the students, diagnosis and placement procedures, course design, instructional methods in use at the various branches, and support services. A valuable resource of how a major university has approached the needs of its growing numbers of ESL students.

Widdowson, H.G. Teaching Language as Communication. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1978.

Presents a well-documented case for language learning to concentrate on discourse rather than sentences, on language use (the ability to communicate) rather than usage (correctness). Includes detailed discussion of theoretical work on discourse: cohesion, coherence, sentence propositional content, and illocutionary acts. Proposes ways to teach reading and writing in a new language through the use of academic subject matter.

BRIDGING THE GAP: IS THERE LIFE AFTER ESL?

In February 1981, the CUNY ESL Council sponsored an all-day conference entitled "Bridging the Gap: Is There Life After ESL?" about ways in which ESL faculty could either work with faculty in other disciplines or adapt ESL courses in order to prepare ESL students for regular college work. The following presentations were made at the conference.

SPREADING THE WORD: ESL ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

Carolyn B. Raphael
English Department
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As in any college discipline, ESL teachers talk primarily to their fellow specialists. Rarely do they compare pedagogical notes with members of other departments. Although such insularity is common, it is particularly detrimental to ESL instruction because second-language acquisition affects students' performance across the curriculum. Therefore, while we continue to "talk shop" among ourselves at conventions and meetings, we should share our ideas with the entire college community.

As ESL Coordinator in the English Department at Queensborough Community College, I have attempted to involve the rest of the college in ESL studies. For example, on December 10, 1980, I chaired a panel presentation entitled "The ESL Student in Your Classroom." The panel comprised ESL teachers from the departments of Speech, Basic Educational Skills (reading and writing), Student Personnel, and English. The audience included interested faculty from the above disciplines, representatives from the departments of Social Sciences and Foreign Languages, and a member of the administration.

There were brief presentations by the panel members describing the ESL courses given in their respective departments, followed by responses and questions from the audience. The topics included overcrowded ESL classes, the need for more tutorial services, and the problems in convincing students to finish all of their ESL requirements before taking subject-area courses. Members of the audience requested greater coordination between ESL instructors and those in other departments, as well as team teaching.

Several recommendations emerged from the conference and are summarized in the following table:

What ESL Faculty Can Do For Subject-Area Faculty	What Subject-Area Faculty Can Do for ESL Students
1. Establish ESL recitations or bridge courses for subject-area courses	1. Require writing and check for style as well as content
2. Share teaching materials	2. Encourage ESL students to speak aloud in class, and educate all students to understand dialect differences

3. Experiment with team-teaching	3. Review the text with ESL students who have reading difficulties
4. Train ESL students to function in subject-area courses by insisting that they pass their remedial work before they take courses demanding extensive reading or writing	4. Speak clearly so that all students can understand the lectures
5. Advise ESL students to take required ESL courses in their prescribed sequence in consecutive semesters	5. Refer ESL students with study problems to the Basic Skills, Speech, English, or Student Personnel Department
6. Encourage ESL students to discuss their social as well as academic problems	6. Recognize the difficulties involved in learning a second language. Offer additional assistance, but do not inflate grades
7. Keep all channels of communication open	7. Keep all channels of communication open

Beyond these specific recommendations, the value of the conference lay in the sharing of information and airing of concerns about ESL studies. Here were members of different disciplines exchanging ideas, asking questions, trying to define mutual problems, and struggling together toward solutions.

The need for cooperation between departments was clearly demonstrated at the CUNY ESL Conference in New York City in February 1981. The title, "Bridging the Gap: Is There Life After ESL?" has particular relevance to the task we are attempting to achieve at Queensborough. The gap is not only academic--although that is the primary one. We must also try to help native-speaking students to reach out to ESL students instead of allowing them to cluster in corners of the cafeteria. We must encourage ongoing dialogues between faculty and ESL counselors, who know the social problems of ESL students. We must educate subject-area teachers who refuse to call on students with heavy accents, or, worse, may embarrass them in front of their classmates. And we must convince the administration to provide the support services essential to success. It is only when we are able to bridge all of the gaps separating ESL students from their goal of academic success that we will have fulfilled our functio

With regard to the second part of the title, "Is There Life After ESL?" there is, in fact, no end to ESL study any more than there is an end to English study for a native speaker. The acquisition and refinement of English skills are lifelong processes, for everyone--or they should be. The quality of life ESL students can expect after formal ESL training, when they find themselves in classes with native speakers, depends on everyone's efforts. If ESL students seriously commit themselves to learn and to communicate with their instructors and classmates, they will have done their part. And if the instructor and classmates complete the effort, the quality of life will be high indeed.

To assure ESL students every chance to achieve their potential, we must do what we have been hired to do: educate. The ESL conference at Queensborough

was educational for our faculty, but we must educate more students, more faculty, and more administrators. This should lead to greater understanding of and commitment to the richly-textured, cosmopolitan population that comprises our student body in CUNY today.

IS THERE LIFE OUTSIDE ESL?

Linda Stanley
English Department
Queensborough Community College

Sir Francis Bacon said it all many years ago in his essay "Of Studies": "Reading makes a full man; conference a ready man; and writing an exact man." Our problem today is that students, whether they are ESL or native speakers, are neither full, nor ready, nor exact, and the faculty across the curriculum do not know what to do about it. They know only what they do not want to do: namely, read student writing. And most of them do not have the time to do what they think ought to be done, at least in writing: laboriously correct errors in student papers. What they have done, as a recent survey at Queensborough shows, is assign little or no reading, writing or talking, and thus the problem compounds itself.

However, on this same questionnaire, 37 percent of the faculty indicated a willingness to participate in our Writing and Reading Across the Curriculum Program (WRAC). As a result, we have planned six seminars, three in writing and three in reading. My discussion concentrates on the writing seminars.

The first seminar in writing develops the editing skills of the non-writing faculty. While ultimately we veer away from this approach, the faculty need to feel comfortable with their own writing skills, and a refresher course in arrangement, purpose, audience, and style, as well as basic grammatical structures, reassures them of their mastery, at least of the terminology. I once heard a lecture on the comma given by an English teacher to faculty from other disciplines, and they found it fascinating. We cannot take for granted that they know the patterns of usage. However, once they possess these skills, they can tutor students more effectively in office hours, as well as originate more effective writing assignments.

The second seminar teaches faculty the holistic method of reading an essay. Having refreshed themselves in editing, they find it easy to evaluate writing from this impressionistic point of view. Using the CUNY six-point scale, they often fall into line much more quickly than do many English professors for whom error analysis is their passion in life. Providing students with this scale also, faculty in other disciplines can grade writing much more quickly and efficiently, and thus they assign it more frequently.

The third seminar emphasizes research on the composing process/workshop approach. After introducing the notion that good writing is done in stages rather than as a single accomplished effort (or product), faculty are encouraged to set aside time for students to react to each other's drafts in a workshop structure. At this point, we present the research that proves that students who write more learn more. If the faculty member still will not allot time for the writing workshop--and this is the hardest point to sell--then we encourage a "buddy" system so that each student has a reader of his draft outside of class time.

Thus, armed with his enthusiasm and newly-found skills, the subject area faculty member goes forth to maintain the life of students outside their language-acquisition courses. Sir Francis would finally approve.

BRIDGES AT LAGUARDIA I: THE ESL SKILLS CLUSTER

Rashida M. Aziz
The English Language Center
LaGuardia Community College

Wandering between two worlds, one dead,
The other powerless to be born,
With nowhere yet to rest my head,
Like these, on earth I wait forlorn.

Matthew Arnold's lines remind me of the situation many students of limited English-speaking ability (LESA) find themselves in when they are almost, but not quite, ready to move from an ESL program into the mainstream of college courses--especially those in the English Department. At LaGuardia, the ESL sequence consists of four levels: ESL 096-099. Upon successful completion of the highest-level course, students take regular English Department courses. Previously there was no "bridge" or other means of "transportation" to help students make this difficult transition to the "other world." As a result, they were becoming increasingly frustrated; many of them failed. Educators at LaGuardia were quick to respond to this problem and the ESL Skills Cluster came into being.

The ESL Skills Cluster is an intensive 17-hour instructional program of "total immersion" in the English language, which was introduced at LaGuardia--first on an experimental basis in the spring of 1980 and later extended to all daytime ESL-099 students in the fall of 1980. The object was to help LESA students refine their reading and writing skills in English and attain oral fluency, and provide a smooth transition for these students from ESL to courses taught in English.

This cluster consists of three courses: ESL 099, the last level in the ESL sequence, Basic Writing Workshop, offered by the English Department but previously not available to students registered for ESL courses; and either Basic Reading II, Basic Reading III, or Communication and the Non-native Speaker, offered by the Communication Skills Department. Cluster students are urged not to take any other courses during the quarter. The cluster courses are block-programmed to expedite/control registration.

In order for this "total immersion" to be a success beyond the experimental stage, the skills taught in the three components of the cluster had to be coordinated. A group of concerned faculty members voluntarily assumed this responsibility. They prepared written course outlines for each of the areas according to the curricular requirements of their respective departments, and then met with other faculty members to discuss what each course emphasized and how the three courses were related. Each teacher was encouraged to reinforce the skills taught in the other two courses and to use a common vocabulary. At the same time they were discouraged from using the same materials.

Through this program, the faculty involved hope to help LESA students attain proficiency in speaking, reading, and writing as quickly as possible, and bridge the

gap between the two worlds. Unlike those "wandering between two worlds," LESA students no longer "wait forlorn," and LaGuardia has made its contribution toward this achievement.

BRIDGES AT LAGUARDIA II: ISR

Judith Coppock Gex
The English Language Center
LaGuardia Community College

Teach. Apply. Reinforce. TAR has been a motto at LaGuardia for several years. Integrated Skills Reinforcement (ISR) brings a way to reinforce basic skills in content courses. Teachers volunteer to learn how to reinforce skills in their courses. They work with ISR leaders to develop materials for courses that teach content while working on listening, speaking, reading and writing.

The first thing ISR participants find out is the level of proficiency students have to achieve in order to pass courses prerequisite to the ones they are teaching. For example, if Basic Reading I is a course prerequisite, the instructor should expect students to be reading at an eighth-grade level. Students completing Basic Reading II are reading at a ninth-grade level.

Using the Frye readability scale, ISR participants find out the reading level of their textbooks. They also develop listening exercises and notetaking checks. Giving each student a sheet of carbon paper so that the teacher can have the students' copy of that day's class notes will tell the teacher which notetaking skills should be emphasized in the course.

Teachers learn to preview their textbooks with classes. They start students off by taking five or ten minutes to preview a chapter in class then continue to remind students to keep doing this on their own. Developing reading guide questions and statements for reading assignments helps highlight what the instructor finds important. Underlining main points and supporting detail is another way to do this. Both of these methods help the instructor who is stuck with teaching from a book the department requires to a group of students whose reading level is lower than that needed to comprehend the book.

Teachers also develop ways of giving students unobtrusive feedback on their speech. For example, they may take notes to give students later or tape a discussion to correct later as a class. I've worked out a sheet for students to use to take notes on other students' speech. Secretaries report to the class on small group discussions. I tape the secretaries' reports while the rest of the class listens and notes on the form what they're hearing. Then I take both the tape and the evaluations home to get some idea of what speech problems there are and what students are perceiving.

ISR teachers are also advised to break big assignments into small chunks which they correct and return to the students as they go along so that they can stay on the right track. (See sample of how I have done this with a project on writing a family tree.)

Students and teachers also share writing samples with the class. Students learn a lot by seeing how teachers approach one of their own writing assignments. Showing them the steps that a native writer goes through to a final draft is beneficial for most students.

One-third of LaGuardia's full-time faculty have participated in this training since it began in 1978. Participants get released time to develop the class they choose.

Family Tree

I. Assignment: Write a series of one-page essays about each member of three or four generations of your family.

II. Collection: I'll collect different parts of this assignment according to the following schedule:

A. Initial descriptive essay about yourself. . . . . 3rd week
B. Essays about mother and father . . . . . 4th week
C. Essays about maternal and paternal grandparents. . . 5th week
D. Essays about your children. . . . . 6th week
E. Revised self-portrait & sketch of family tree . . . . . 7th week
F. Completed rewritten family tree. . . . . 8th week

A BASIC SPEECH COURSE FOR ESL STUDENTS

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Department of Speech
Brooklyn College

"Are you ready to earn three college credits?"

"Yes," "Si," "Oui," "Ja," reply the ESL students in Speech 3.2.

In order to be successful in this Basic Speech course, students must:

1. learn the basic concepts of oral communication
2. practice these concepts in a variety of oral and written activities
3. show significant improvement in meeting their needs in standard American English. Attention must be given to
   a. the substitution, distortion, and/or omissions of sounds and
   b. the use of intonation patterns of native languages when applied to American speech.

The curriculum is similar to the basic speech course for traditional students, but it is adapted to meet the need of the specific ESL students enrolled. The key to success is a combination of the ESL students' basic grasp of reading and writing in English and their willingness to learn to speak American English in an acceptable manner.

The curriculum includes the analysis and discussion of the oral communication theory needed for each of three graded presentations. Ongoing activities include the analysis of non-verbal communication, interviewing techniques, voice: production and drill, articulation: production and drill, and listening techniques. Time is spent throughout the semester augmenting the ESL students' understanding of idioms in American speech.

There is much time devoted to work in articulation. The students analyze, produce, and drill the vowel and consonant sounds selected for study. The choice of specific sounds to be studied is based on the diagnosis done during the first week of

the semester. The vowels are studied first because they carry the melody of the language (intonation is the most difficult pattern to change); and the errors most common to all students, regardless of their language background, are found in the vowel sounds.

A comparison of the students' languages with American English is used in working on intonation and the omission of the final consonant sounds. The oral interpretation presentation is of value here.

What do ESL students get from this basic speech course? If they are successful in the course, they should come away from it with:

1. an overview of oral communication theory and application
2. an understanding of how inappropriate articulation and intonation affect their communication with others
3. the ability to produce standard American speech more acceptably
4. three college credits.

ESL STUDENTS' PROBLEMS IN COMMUNICATION (AS A NATURAL RESOURCE)

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Department of Speech and Theatre
Lehman College

That ESL students experience problems in communication as they make their way into the mainstream is not surprising--it is in fact a given for teachers in all disciplines, in all the branches of CUNY. The need for bridge courses, linking the "island" of ESL students with the "mainland" of departmental offerings, is receiving more and more attention. At Lehman, in the Department of Speech and Theatre, we have become aware not only of the need, but of the natural resource for instruction and curriculum design offered by the very problems our ESL students are striving to overcome.

Our "bridge" is the basic course, Speech 100, 3 hours, 3 credits, required of all students for graduation, with special sections for non-native speakers of English. Our syllabus reflects the attempt to focus on those areas of the curriculum with especially strong implications for second-language speakers, while maintaining the intent and integrity of the course in accordance with departmental criteria.

The study of interpersonal communication, in dyadic, group, and public forms, lends itself readily to the bridge-building task. In examining the process of communication, the interaction of S(ender) and R(eceiver), the variations in C(hannel) and the complexities of the verbal and non-verbal M(essage), we have a natural framework for instruction in language choice, articulation, listening skills, cross-cultural communication, rhetorical organization, and making presentations to an audience.

The first segment of our syllabus, What Is Communication?, provides the student with experience in several communicative roles: member of an audience, participant in group discussion, interlocutor in a dyad, speechwriter, and public speaker, in rapid succession. Following this experiential cycle, we explain the theory of communication, with simple and more complex SMCR models, of which each component is specifically related to the experience of the second-language, second-culture communicator. In dealing with the impact of feedback, positive and negative, and noise, physical, psychological, and linguistic, students examine situations they have faced in class and

in the outside world, analyzing those situations and making of them the substance of further study, as we move into the areas of language choice, phonology, articulation, organization of ideas, speaking to inform or entertain, and taking a stand on controversial issues.

The first task facing the student is the dyadic interview, during which he collects data about a classmate, following guidelines established by class consensus. At home, he transforms this data into a brief speech of introduction, combining the facts with his own impression of the interviewee; he then delivers this speech "publicly" in order to present his classmate to the group.

During this round of introductions, the students record demographic data for future reference. In the process, they make discoveries about themselves and others which lead to longer presentations later on. At the same time, we take note of articulation patterns, and begin to ask why some students are easier to understand than others, and what the fluent speakers do that can be emulated by others. All of this early activity redounds in the subsequent work of the class.

Thus, we can say that our bridge course in oral communication is not a matter of individual lessons, but of a philosophical and pedagogical orientation based on the awareness that each student's situation as a second-language speaker affects every aspect of his participation in class: his self-perception as student and colleague, his manner of formulating and articulating utterances, the feedback and noise he generates and receives, the content of his presentations, the issues he perceives as controversial, and the stands he takes on them.

Transcending all this, and never separate from the communicator, is the student's sense of himself, no longer a stranger and afraid, able to communicate in a world he never made.

ADVANCED ESL READING COURSES

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Queens College

During the Spring 1980 semester, faculty members at Queens College were asked to respond to a questionnaire concerning the academic performance of non-native English speakers in their classes. Many responses indicated that despite a good background in a particular content area, ESL students lacked many important study and reading skills which made it difficult for them to cope with the requirements of a given course. In particular, students found it difficult to understand technical vocabulary, to grasp the main idea of a paragraph, to distinguish between fact and opinion--in short, to read critically.

The advanced reading courses now offered by the College English as a Second Language Program (CESL) have been designed to help students overcome these difficulties. Students who have been placed in our advanced ESL writing course also choose one reading course according to their major: Readings in the Sciences, Readings in the Social Sciences, or Readings in the Humanities. Each reading class meets four hours per week for two credits.

Four major areas are covered in each course: vocabulary building, reading for information, reading for research, and reading critically. Students are introduced to the basic terminology necessary to understand college-level materials in the major disciplines. They are also taught how to summarize and outline what they read. Frequent writing assignments and instruction in the use of the library culminate in the writing of a research paper.

The most important aspect of the course is teaching students how to read critically. The ESL student who usually reads with the aid of a dictionary often misses important meanings or finds it difficult to recognize an author's attempt to influence a reader by using emotional language and generalizations rather than verifiable statements. The close analysis of a reading selection discussed in class helps the student to develop the ability to evaluate an article and to ascertain the reliability of both author and sources.

The course therefore helps the student in that it slows down the reading process and breaks it up into manageable steps. These reading and comprehension skills can then be applied to materials students need to master their other courses. Most of our ESL students take courses in other departments simultaneously with their ESL classes. They must cope with a large amount of unfamiliar material and often feel self-conscious about asking questions. In many courses the final grade is based solely on one examination or research report. Since we require frequent writing assignments from our students, they receive constant feedback. The students are spared the burden of mastering a particular subject and can thus concentrate on improving their reading comprehension.

Beginning in Fall 1981, we hope to offer special reading sections for graduate students. These courses will differ from the undergraduate reading courses in that students will be required to do more writing than we currently require, and the reading selections will be drawn exclusively from readings required in graduate seminars.

PAIRING READING WITH OTHER COURSES

Wendy Maloney
Department of Educational Services
Brooklyn College

Once decoding has been mastered, reading is often described as an increasingly efficient use of the reader's knowledge of language and rhetorical structures to gain meaning from text. As proficiency grows, readers rely less on graphic cues, seeking only the most salient, and rely more heavily on linguistic competence and conceptual store or framework.

Unfortunately, although college students assigned to remedial reading courses generally do learn to read faster and to do better on standardized reading tests then they did before, neither they nor their teachers are satisfied with their ability to truly comprehend what they read. It has been demonstrated that background knowledge--prior information held about a given topic--increases a reader's ability to recall information from the text and to fill in for information not explicitly supplied (Bransford and Johnson, 1973; Pearson, Hansen, and Gordon, 1979). Students who are identified as poor readers are, from early school experiences, assigned to remedial reading sessions where the texts used for reading skills instruction are excerpts from disparate sources, taken out of context and used without regard for integrating the text into a coherent, conceptual framework. It is these very students who, because they are identified as

poor readers, are closed out of academic programs and courses which might provide them with a framework for ideas beyond their experiences and with vocabulary not heard in daily conversation. In effect, reading comprehension of both expository and narrative forms is diminished, not only by students' experience with texts taken out of ontext, but also by their ignorance of what Stevens (1980) calls "school-associated knowledge," an ignorance of geography, history, science, and literature, ignorance of a shared culture. These students do not have so much trouble learning to read as they do fitting what they read into a relative framework.

Our students need to learn the conventional structures of prose, and they need a conceptual framework for making what they read make sense. Pairing reading and academic courses provides students and faculty with a structure so that students can hook in new information. At the same time, this kind of pairing provides students with an opportunity to practice reading, writing, and listening skills in an academic environment with instructors who are sensitive to skills development as well as their own content area. It is important for all students, but particularly so for those who are at risk, to have a learning environment in which they are not penalized for not having skills or schema they have not yet learned.

Suggested Reading

Bransford, J.P. and M.K. Johnson. "Considerations of Some Problems of Comprehension." In W.G. Chase, ed. Visual Information Processing. New York: Academic Press, 1973.

Marshall, N. and M.D. Glock. "Comprehension of Connected Discourse: A Study in the Relationships Between the Structure of the Text and Information Recalled." Reading Research Quarterly, 1978-1979, 14, 10-56.

Meyer, B.J., D.M. Brandt, and G.J. Bluth. "Use of Top-level Structure in Text: Key for Reading Comprehension of Ninth-grade Students." Reading Research Quarterly, 1980, 16, 72-103.

Pearson, P.D., J. Hansen, and C. Gordon. "The Effect of Background Knowledge on Young Children's Comprehension of Explicit and Implicit Information." Journal of Reading Behavior, 1979, 11, 201-209.

Stevens, K.C. "The Effect of Background Knowledge on the Reading Comprehension of Ninth Graders." Journal of Reading Behavior, 1980, 12, 151-154.

PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY IN ESL COURSES

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Department of Developmental Skills
New York City Technical College

A great deal of attention in the professional literature of ESL and basic skills instruction has been directed to the growth of students' receptive vocabulary. Strategies for the increase of productive vocabulary have not been described to nearly the same extent. This presentation addresses that latter aspect of ESL instruction.

The ESL student's productive vocabulary may be characterized by a variety of deficiencies: poverty of synonyms, vagueness, overuse of circumlocutions, use of false

cognates from the first language, incorrect word forms, connotatively or stylistically incorrect usages, and incomplete or incorrect constructions (e.g., absence of needed prepositions). An ESL course in which reading and writing are integrated opens the way for the enrichment of productive vocabulary.

One method of productive vocabulary expansion which works particularly well at lower levels, is an outgrouth of the technique of "slow motion reading." In this activity the instructor reads a short tale aloud, interrupting line by line to elicit from the class predictions, inferences, and experiential digressions. Vocabulary enrichment can play a natural part in this activity. For example, the instructor may describe a character in the story as "walking gracefully..." Synonyms for the adverb may be elicited from various students and the sentence repeated aloud with the new synonym slotted in. Students thus gain practice in articulating new words in a context which supplies a correct model of meaning and form. This wonderfully non-threatening, integrative vocabulary activity can take as many directions (e.g., antonymns, stylistic levels, connotation, pronunciation) as the instructor has time for. Cumulative writing tasks using the new vocabulary may be appended to the lesson.

Another approach to productive vocabulary expansion which is workable at all levels is that of Word Family charts. A simple boxed chart offering five to ten words selected from an assigned reading, may be easily represented on the board or copied for students. Correct verb, noun, adjective, and adverb forms may be elicited orally from the class or previously prepared by students. Completion of the chart is followed by dictation of sentences with blanks to be filled in by students from the items on the chart, and subsequent paired dictations of completed sentences. These activities give aural, oral, cognitive, and written dimensions to productive vocabulary growth.

A third kind of attack on impoverished productive vocabulary may be made through a complete-sentence multiple-choice type exercise in which students are offered three or four different ways of conveying the same thought, with the answers ranging from incorrect or imprecise through degrees of concreteness and vividness. An understanding of a hierarchy of preciseness develops in this exercise, which compels students to explain their choices and their discards. Target items may be taken from student writing to remediate incorrect, imprecise, or circumlocutionary usages, while a choice of items from reading passages may be used to demonstrate more subtle aspects of word use such as connotation, graphicalness, or levels of formality.

A final activity to stimulate the growth of productive vocabulary is one which assigns students a writing task incorporating specific words. Such tasks may be assigned individually, in pairs, or in groups. Students may be restricted to given forms of words or may be given stems (verb forms) to manipulate. A pool of words based on a reading may be offered by the instructor, chosen by the students, or compiled by combining the choices of both. The topic of the writing task may be left open or geared to the reading; the task may incorporate visuals or realia or may not. Whatever the details, the requirement that students utilize a body of selected, academically contextualized words in their writing encourages a distancing from and objectivity towards a topic which brings the student closer to the kinds of expository writing expected in academic content classes. Because the writing task is assigned as a unified coherent paragraph on a topic rather than as unrelated sentences, the student is compelled to exercise composition and vocabulary skills simultaneously.

Like Lewis Carroll's Mock Turtle, most of our ESL students can only afford "the regular course...Reeling and Writhing to begin with...and then the different branches of Arithmetic--Ambition, Distraction, Uglification and Derision." Productive vocabulary expansion, like the Turtle's "French, music, and washing" may seem to be unaffordable "extras." But I would hope not. The activities described here allow ESL students to share, to some degree at least, the special joy of using vocabulary above the pedestrian level.

ADAPTING ACADEMIC COURSES

The following five articles were written by members of the Brooklyn College ESL Program. The first three discuss adapting lectures, textbook assignments, and tests, and the last two discuss "English for Specific Purposes," a new direction in English language teaching which should prove to be fruitful ground for discussion between faculty in ESL and in other areas.

"WHAT FOREIGN STUDENTS IN MY CLASS?": HOW CAN SUBJECT-AREA TEACHERS HELP THE ESL STUDENTS IN THEIR COURSES?

Elaine Brooks
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Brooklyn College

One of the first steps I took in investigating the question of how to improve the aural comprehension of English-as-a-Second-Language students in their subject-area courses was to speak with some of my students about their other courses. Alex, for example, is enrolled in a computer science course in which he says he has no difficulty following the instructor. However, he pointed out that he had worked in this field in the Soviet Union. He felt that if he had not had any previous experience in this field, he would be completely lost in the course. What can be done for the majority of students who, naturally, would not be as "prepared" as Alex?

I. What is the task facing ESL student in a subject-area course? ESL students must be able to understand lectures, take notes and, perhaps, write summaries from those notes. In order to perform these tasks, J. B. Heaton[1] points out that students must also be able to a) listen to and understand uninterrupted and spontaneous speech, b) select salient points in order to take notes, c) reduce words and sentences without loss of meaning, d) perceive basic relationships between different ideas, states, actions, and processes, and d) read the notes and put them to further use (i.e., revision, further reading, or writing).

II. What can ESL students do to prepare for these tasks? The students may read the text or background articles in advance. If the instructor permits, students may record the lecture. Students can work with a "buddy," preferably an American classmate. In addition, students can alert the instructor to their situation and seek out the instructor for individual conferences.

III. What can ESL teachers do to aid the students? ESL instructors can teach typical abbreviations, symbols, or rhetorical devices and expressions that are commonly used. (See Paulston and Bruder[2] or Yorkey[3].) They can give students practice in listening to lectures of different levels of difficulty and different lengths of time, by different types of speakers, and have students take notes and/or summarize. They can also teach linking techniques, pronoun reference, substitution and omission, and reduction. But, then we come to reality: students must enter subject-area courses where there may be only a few foreign students and the professors can't cater to them.

IV. What can the subject-area teacher do that might mean the difference between learning and frustration, beyond good teaching? Perhaps simply pose a few questions to herself.

Could I give out a lecture or a course outline for students to follow as they listen, or to read beforehand?

What types of questions could be assigned before a lecture so as to focus listening?

Would it be useful to assign the reading before the lecture?

Which specific points of information should they listen for (guide questions)?

What vocabulary items or idioms could be put on a handout or on the board?

What type of information or expressions have I included that may be "culture-bound," that I could retain, but restate or explain in other words?

How could I break up the time spent lecturing? Either by asking the students comprehension questions or by answering any questions they may have.

What type of visual aids would be clearest -- pictures, diagrams, charts, etc.?

Could student discussion groups be arranged?

Do the foreign students know that I am available for conferences or help?

V. What are some potential problems that could arise? I attended two lectures as part of my investigation into this question. Both instructors were lively, clear speakers who generally followed all the usual steps for "good teaching." However, one man sprinkled his speech liberally with idioms ("make hay while the sun shines;" "throw the book at;" "takes the cake,") while the other changed thought in mid-sentence and used cultural references (i.e., Little Rock -- the 1954 desegregation case) without explanation, both of which can be confusing to foreign students who don't realize what they have missed. Instructors cannot be expected to eliminate idioms or cultural references from their speech, nor should they, but they should be aware of the potential for confusion. Grammatical inconsistencies, hesitation, repetition, or restating may be helpful to native speakers, but they may hinder ESL students. Similarly, if a lecturer digresses, is disorganized, mumbles, speaks too fast, or has an unfamiliar accent, the result may be confusion for the ESL student.

The basic question is, beyond sensitizing oneself to the foreign student's presence, what can the subject-area teacher do to help focus the student's listening and notetaking? We can't expect overburdened instructors to restructure courses for a few students, but we can find out what can be done within reason. In becoming aware of the foreign student's situation and needs, the instructor may focus the entire class more clearly. There is a growing population of motivated foreign students. It is in our interests as educators to keep them with us.

Notes

1. J.B. Heaton, "Keep It Short--Notetaking for Learners of ESL." English for Special Purposes, ed. Susan Holden, (London: Modern English Publications, 1977), p. 30.

2. Christina B. Paulston and Mary N. Bruder, TESOL: Techniques and Procedures (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Winthrop 1976), pp. 127-153.

3. Richard C. Yorkey, Study Skills for Students of ESL (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970), pp. 161-180.

Additional Suggested Reading

Montassir, Jan Demming. "A Complete Listening Comprehension Program for English Language University-Preparation." On TESOL, Ed. Fanselow and Crymes. Washington, D.C.: TESOL, 1976.

Ostler, Shirley E. "A Survey of Academic Needs for Advanced ESL," TESOL Quarterly, Dec. 1980, Vol. 14, #4, p. 489.

TESTING AND THE FOREIGN STUDENT

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With increasing numbers of foreign students being admitted to CUNY, considerations that were once the exclusive domain of the ESL instructor now need to be incorporated into the pedagogy of the content-area instructor. The following discussion touches on one of the most important of these aspects: testing.

While the goal of testing is to assess student competence in some corpus of knowledge, the language employed in test questions often impedes the proper evaluation of student performance. When ESL students confront test questions that are difficult because of the language or the cultural bias they contain, their ability to evaluate and answer them properly may be severly constrained.

The most insurmountable problem that a test question can present to the ESL student is cultural bias. Even among American students, a common cultural background cannot be assumed. With foreign students, the amount of shared cultural knowledge is even more limited. Thus questions which depend upon a knowledge of American culture and values for their full comprehension often confuse the ESL student. For example, how could a recent immigrant from the Soviet Union be expected to solve problems which involve computing batting averages for a baseball team or converting English words into Pig Latin. Yet we have seen such questions in tests that our students must deal with. While elimination of cultural bias may indeed be impossible, an awareness of the problem by a concerned instructor will definitely be of value to the foreign student.

Another area that causes problems for the ESL student is the use of highly idiomatic language. Even for the most advanced ESL student, idioms and their usage are difficult. Presenting foreign students with a test question that pivots

on the understanding of an idiom, puts them at a severe disadvantage. Therefore, the language utilized in test questions should be limited to clear, non-idiomatic forms.

The grammatical structure of the test questions themselves can present problems. Increased comprehensibility can be achieved by avoiding complex structures which involve the passive voice, complex conditionals, Wh- deletion, and verbal constructions that can be expanded into nominalizations. What we are advocating is not the reduction of the complexity of the material being tested, but rather the reduction of the complexity of the language employed.

Aside from the test questions themselves, the dynamics of the test-taking situation must also be considered. Foreign students, being from different cultures and educational systems, may have a far different notion of tests. They may not share the same assumptions as American students about the relationships among test, lecture, and text. For foreign students, prior experience may dictate rote memory rather than abstraction. They may never have encountered short answer, multiple-choice, fill-in, matching, and true-false tests. Therefore, content-area instructors need to make their expectations explicit so that American and foreign students alike enter the test with the same perspective.

These problems have been considered in the hope that constructive dialogue can be developed between ESL and content-area instructors. As the preparation of our students for meeting academic situations outside our classrooms is one of our primary goals, we realize that input from the content areas is vital. Working together, we can better serve our respective disciplines and our students.

FACILITATING TEXTBOOK USEFULNESS

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Perhaps the most important consideration in the discussion of textbooks is the role they play within the total framework of a course. Most American students know from past experience that the basic function of the text is to supplement and clarify topics covered in course lectures; however, it cannot be assumed that this knowledge is shared by ESL students.

It would help the ESL student to know from the outset what part a textbook will play in a course. Without too much effort an instructor can introduce the text as a reference and point out its advantages. By leading the student to the table of contents, the index, the glossary, the bibliography, and explanatory diagrams and graphs, the instructor can help the student feel comfortable with the text as a supplement to the course. As the course progresses, successive references to these aspects of the textbook will reinforce the fact that the text is to be used to locate clarifying information and not to be memorized.

When instructors assign a chapter or group of chapters, they should tell students to read the material and perhaps look over the discussion questions at the end. The American student interprets the assignment as reading for general concepts or main ideas. Quite often, however, the ESL student does not see the task in the same light. Depending on his past experience, the ESL student might see the task as unnecessary or, at the other extreme, as one of formal memorization or factual recall.

Assignments that ask students to do more than just read definitely aid ESL students; these tasks make explicit that the assignment is to be read for main points. For example, often instructors assign exercises or discussion questions at the end of the chapter. By telling the student that these include the main points in the chapter, the instructor can make a significant contribution to the ESL student's comprehension. The ESL student will see the post-reading questions as an integral part of the reading assignment rather than one assignment to be done in addition to the actual reading.

Possibly even more fruitful is the idea of pre-reading questions which give focus to the subsequent reading of the chapter. The student can then proceed with a better understanding of what is expected. Following the reading, the same questions can act as a review. For example, in a beginning computer course, the instructor might ask, "who are the three members of the programming team, and what are their functions?"

Also useful is a list of the concepts the instructor considers most important, for example, "programming team," "chief programmer," "back-up programmer," and "program librarian." Here too, key concepts can serve as guideposts, as indicators of when the reading assignment has been successfully completed. By using these terms both for pre-reading and post-reading assignments, the ESL student can better grasp the purpose of the assignment and recognize the point at which he has satisfied the instructor's expectations.

A more formal and admittedly more time-consuming approach is the instructor's outline. We are not suggesting necessarily the rigid traditional format, but rather a structure which helps the student tie together the information in the reading. In the outline the instructor combines the key concepts approach with the actual structure of the text by revealing the hierarchical relationship of the concepts. Example:

Programming Team
- chief programmer
- back-up programmer
- program librarian
    - advantages of the programming team

With this approach the ESL student is given the additional aid of having the concepts presented to him in the logical order of the text.

The same concepts that we have used in the key concepts approach--the pre- and post-reading questions, and the outline--can also be combined into a short summary. (Example: "A programming team consists of three members: the chief programmer who writes the main program, the back-up programmer who works on alternate designs, and the program librarian who keeps the records of the project.") The only drawback we see in this approach is that the students may begin to see the chapter summaries as substitutes for the actual chapters.

The summary can, however, be used with great advantage in a slightly different manner. Perhaps one way to emphasize writing would be to have students write chapter summaries from one of the organizational structures we have talked about. In this way, students will see a use for the writing skills they have been developing, and the assignment will integrate various skills.

Any of these approaches will achieve much the same result. By making one or more available to ESL students, the instructor will eliminate some of the bewilderment students feel when approaching reading material. The assignments will be seen as doable, not as burdensome, and as aids to understanding.

The following outline highlights the forms that each strategy takes:

Post-reading and Pre-reading Questions

1. Who are the three members of the chief programming team? What are their functions?
2. What is top-down programming?
3. What are the four basic patterns of a structured program?
4. What is a pseudocode? Why do you think a pseudocode is useful?

Key Concepts

programming team	program librarian	pseudocode
chief programmer	top-down programming	
back-up programmer	structured programming	

Outline

Programming Team
- chief programmer
- backup programmer
- program librarian
  - advantages of programming team

Top-down Programming
- top-down designing
- top-down coding
- top-down testing
  - advantages of top-down programming

Structured Programming
- objectives (5)
- basic patterns (4)
  - advantages of structured programming

Pseudocode
- informal language
  - advantages of using pseudocode

Summary

A programming team consists of three members: the chief programmer who writes the main program, the back-up programmer who works on alternate designs, and the program librarian who keeps the records of the project. Together the members of the programming team use top-down development to design, code, and test the program. This is achieved by using structured programming methods. As they write the program they often use pseudocode, or informal language, to work on the design of the program.

WHAT IS ESP AND SO WHAT?

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In the last ten years or so, the new field of "English for Specific Purposes" (ESP) has emerged in English language teaching. ESP is sometimes divided into the more specific fields of EST (English for Science and Technology), EOP (English for Occupational Purposes), and EAP (English for Academic Purposes). What is special

about ESP courses and texts is that they attempt to focus on the English needed by a student in a specific field. For example, some recently released ESP texts are The Language of Computer Programming in English, The Language of Hospital Services in English, or, to mention some more academic titles, Basic English for Science, English in Physical Science, Biology, Mathematics, and Chemistry.

The texts deal not only with vocabulary and sentence types used in a specific field but also with the ways in which language is used in this field. For example, H.G. Widdowson explains that in discussing scientific experiments, language is used for instructions, descriptions, reports, hypotheses, deductions, calculation of results, and so forth. More generally in science, language is used for classification, generalization, and definition. Thus, teachers who want to develop ESP courses or materials must become familiar not only with the language of a particular area (e.g., vocabulary and sentence structure) but also with the uses to which that language is put: the explanation of basic concepts, the order in which concepts are presented, relationships between concepts, or the processes involved in a particular field.

What is the relevance of ESP to ESL programs at CUNY? There are several ways in which ESP, or, in particular, EAP, may be useful to us. One possibility is that we might use some of the currently available ESP texts in courses which we offer. Another possibility is that we might structure new "bridge" courses to prepare students for their academic classes. Such bridge courses could use ESP texts, or excerpts from texts used in actual courses students will take at CUNY. For example, Brooklyn College is now introducing a "core curriculum" of ten courses required for all students; the Brooklyn ESL program could take excerpts from the texts to be used in those courses and use them in a bridge course. We could also take short segments of lectures (perhaps five to ten minutes long) and use them to develop skills in listening and note-taking. Other possibilities are that tutors could use current EAP texts or new materials developed by CUNY faculty to help students with particular courses, or students could use these materials to understand their more complex assignments.

This new direction in language teaching challenges us to make our programs more relevant. If we accept this challenge, we must get more involved with faculty in other areas. We can teach them much about how to deal with students who are having difficulty with language, and they can teach us much about the uses to which language is put in their fields and in college studies in general.

Suggested Reading:

General

English for Specific Purposes. Ed. Susan Holden. London: Modern English Publications, 1977.

Mackay, R. and A.J. Mountford. English for Specific Purposes. New York: Longman, 1978.

Widdowson, H.G. Explorations in Applied Linguistics. New York: Oxford University Press, 1979.

Texts

Allen, J.P. and H.G. Widdowson. English in Physical Science. New York: Oxford University Press, 1974.

Bloom, Gretchen. The Language of Hospital Services in English. New York: Regents, 1976.

Bolitho, A.R. and P.L. Sandler. Learn English for Science. New York: Longman, 1977.

Bolitho, A.R. and P.L. Sandler. Study English for Science. New York: Longman, 1977.
Close, R.A. The English We Use for Science. New York: Longman.
Costinett, Sandra. The Language of Accounting in English. New York: Regents, 1977.
Donovan, Peter. Basic English for Science. New York: Oxford University Press, 1978.
Ewer, J.R. and G. Latorre. A Course in Basic Scientific English. New York: Longman, 1975.
Gregg, Joan Young. Communication and Culture: A Reading-Writing Text. New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1980.
Heaton, J.B. Studying in English. New York: Longman.
Keegel, John C. The Language of Computer Programming in English. New York: Regents, 1976.
Longman Dictionary of Scientific English. (Contrasts scientific use of terms with general use; organized like a thesaurus.)
Nucleus Series: Biology, Chemistry, General Science, Geology, Mathematics, Physics. (all separate books) New York: Longman.
Pearson, Ian. English in Biological Science. New York: Oxford University Press, 1979.
Reading and Thinking in English Series: Concepts in Use, Exploring Functions, Discovering Discourse, Discourse in Action. (A series of four "English for Academic Purposes" texts) New York: Oxford University Press.

ESP TEXTS: THE BEST OF BOTH WORLDS?

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One way to facilitate learning for ESL students in academic content areas is to use ESP texts and materials as course supplements in labs and tutorial sessions. These texts concentrate on the four skills areas in English: speaking, listening, reading, and writing, while, at the same time, teaching content in particular areas. Currently, the texts available are largely in the science and social science areas on the college level.*

Speaking and listening are less developed in ESP materials than reading and writing, since the latter are more crucial to the overall performance and success of the college student. Nevertheless, there are a number of speaking exercises including pronunciation drills, oral substitution drills, comprehension questions, and group discussion questions in ESP texts.

Listening is a vital skill for ESL students to sharpen as most academic content courses rely heavily on a lecture format. An excellent listening exercise from the Longman Nucleus Series in Biology features a text which is either played (a tape is available from Longman) or read aloud while students take notes. The book provides charts and notes for students to fill in, using the information from the listening text. An example follows:

*See pp. 66-67 for list of texts.

The Relationship Between Surface Area and Food Consumption

An experiment was carried out to find the relationship between the surface area of different animals and the amount of food which they consume.

A mouse and a rabbit were first weighed and measured. The mouse was found to weigh thirty-two grams and have a surface area of one hundred and thirty-seven square centimeters. The rabbit had a weight of three thousand, six hundred and ninety-five grams and a surface area of two thousand, seven hundred and eighty square centimeters.

The animals were then given the same kind of food over a period of time and their food consumption was compared. On average, the mouse ate eight point seven grams of food per day, while the rabbit ate one hundred and seventy-five grams.

Finally, the food consumption of each animal was compared with its weight. It was observed that the mouse, with its proportionately smaller surface area, ate proportionately more. It ate approximately one quarter of its weight, whereas the rabbit ate less than one-twentieth of its weight.

The conclusion drawn from this experiment was that an animal's food consumption depends on its surface area.

The explanation for this is that small animals must eat more because they lose heat more rapidly than bigger animals.

Other types of listening exercises used are paired sound discriminations, labeling diagrams in accordance with taped instructions, and true-false dictations.

ESP texts focus on reading rather than other skills. Reading exercises include fill-ins, true-false, contextual reference questions, word building, cloze passages, and notetaking assignments. Also, there is widespread use of visual materials such as charts, graphs, diagrams, and photographs to illustrate as well as to test comprehension of reading passages.

In ESP texts, writing is the skill that usually incorporates the teaching of the specific language structures and functions peculiar to the various content areas. One example is the heavy emphasis on the passive voice in the sciences to teach constructs such as, "Carbon dioxide is composed of carbon and oxygen." An example of a language function taught is argumentation or contrast in the social science areas.

In conclusion, ESL texts incorporate traditional ESL teaching methods to help non-native students learn an academic subject while they improve their English language skills.

Notes

1. Donald Adamson and Martin Bates, Nucleus: English for Science and Technology: Biology (London: Longman, 1977).